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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 14, 1892.

The Week.

THE new silver debate opened by Senator Morgan of Alabama was started ostensibly to "tear off the mask" from certain Senators who are seeking a Presidential nomination while concealing their views on this important question. It called up Senator Sherman, who gave us one of his characteristic speeches, made up of sense and nonsense in about equal parts, but so commingled that the former should be made effective in legislation and the latter useful on the stump. Nobody understands this art so well as Mr. Sherman. He defended the act of 1890, which discontinued the coinage of silver dollars and substituted in their place Treasury notes based on silver bullion, saying that this was more economical and safer than the plan of coining silver. The Government saved a cent and a half on every dollar by not coining. It also kept the metal in the form of heavy ingots which could not be stolen. Moreover, the Treasury-note plan enabled the Government to mix up its obligations in a kind of soup where all the ingredients were inseparable, so that all might, with better face, be kept at par with gold. Mr. Sherman added that "every one of those Treasury notes was based upon enough of silver to be equal to a dollar in gold at the time of the purchase of the silver; and, taking the average for a period of years, there was a dollar's worth of silver in the Treasury for every silver certificate issued." This is a truism that is without the smallest significance unless the Treasury has the power to dispose of the silver in case of need. There is no such power. The Secretary can only look at his stock from time to time. Even if he had the legal power to sell it, he could not do so without greatly depressing the price. If he should offer the whole of it at fifty cents an ounce, he could not find purchasers for it. Therefore the fact that there is a dollar's worth of silver "behind" every silver certificate and Treasury note is of no more consequence than the fact that there is a brick wall "behind" the silver.

Senator Stewart has made an explanation of the singular fact that he has twenty-five mortgages recorded in his favor in a single county in California, the principal and interest of which are payable specifically in *gold coin*. He said that he had never seen one of these mortgages; that they were all given for land sold through his agents, who had simply followed the customary form of mortgage used on the Pacific Coast. Senator Hale said with much solemnity that he hoped Mr. Stewart would never do it again, and the latter replied with equal gravity that

he would not. He added that he considered the Gold Contract Law of California a bad thing in itself and a serious drawback to the prosperity of the State. Fortunately there is a way in which Mr. Stewart, and all other "slopers" who are of like mind with himself, can avoid this evil and at the same time contribute to the prosperity of the slope, viz., they can change all their bills receivable, including those secured by mortgage, so as to make them payable in "lawful money." It is not likely that any debtor would object. They can also start a movement to repeal this odious Gold Contract Law. We are surprised, indeed, that Mr. Stewart, entertaining the views he does, has not put himself at the head of such a movement long ago. If it is really an injury to California, he ought to lose no time in pointing out to his fellow-citizens the mistake they are making every day of their lives. No doubt they would be highly diverted if not convinced.

The task of defending the honor and good name of the United States against one of the rudest assaults ever directed against them, was performed by Mr. Hitt of Illinois and by Mr. Hooker of Mississippi in a satisfactory manner on Monday week, when the Chinese Exclusion Bill was brought to a vote in the House. This measure received the affirmative votes of 179 members, against only 43 in the negative, and yet it was a deliberate sacrifice of self-respect and plighted faith at the behest of low demagogism; and in this disgraceful exhibition there was very little to choose between parties. If such a measure should really become the law of the land, we should inscribe ourselves in the catalogue of nations as being inferior to China in some of the most important qualities that go to make up the rating of civilized peoples. Leaving humanity out of the reckoning altogether, the mere breach of faith in this case is positively shocking. It makes one wonder whether the teachings of Christ have produced any enduring effect whatever upon the hearts and consciences of men.

Ex-Senator Blair of New Hampshire had an intense desire to learn why he was *persona non grata* at the Court of Peking, when he was appointed Minister to China and was not received by that country. That desire was gratified in due time. The reason why Mr. Blair was not acceptable was that he had, in a Senate debate, indulged in comments on the Chinese people that had made an unfavorable impression in the Flowery Kingdom. The Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs accordingly requested that Mr. Blair be not sent to that country, assigning the foregoing reason. Mr. Wharton, our

Assistant Secretary of State, acknowledged that each country must decide for itself the question of acceptableness of a person designated as Minister by any other country, and that it is not obliged to give any reasons. But if it did give reasons, then he was disposed to contend that the reasons must be logical—that is, satisfactory to the country sending him—a position obviously untenable since it would lead to endless dispute and eventual rupture. Mr. Wharton was prepared to show that when Mr. Blair compared Chinese immigration to the spread of yellow fever, he was merely using the latter term as a forcible illustration and figure of speech, and did not intend to say that the landing of a Chinaman was the same thing as the landing of a yellow-fever patient. There is some ground for thinking that this was the truth, and that Blair meant no more than this, that if we have a moral right to exclude yellow fever, we have a moral right to exclude anything that we consider hurtful, including Chinese immigration. Mr. Blair now wants to have the whole affair investigated by the Senate, not with a view to getting him into the good graces of the Court of Peking, but for purposes of general vindication. We think that the Senate may find better use for its time.

Word has evidently been passed around among Mr. W. E. Curtis's friends in the various chambers of commerce that this would be a good time to pass resolutions extolling him in the rôle of the Bureau of American Republics, and calling upon Congress to give him the appropriation for which he longs. The Boston Chamber of Commerce did the graceful thing by him on April 6, and the Chamber of this city was equally courteous and equally perfunctory the next day. Other cities will no doubt speedily produce the same stereotyped tribute to the "great and increasing importance of the Bureau as an agent in promoting commercial relations between this country and the South American nations." Now the first thing to be said about such resolutions is what the Marquis of Halifax said about the addresses of English Dissenters to James II. on the occasion of that monarch's declarations of indulgence: "These bespoken thanks are but little less improper than were love-letters solicited by the lady to whom they are to be directed." In the second place, there is no evidence that the Bureau has promoted commercial relations to any appreciable extent. It has published various handbooks, which we have given suitable praise, but at a cost ten or twelve times as great as the work could have been done for privately. What it has chiefly promoted has been the vanity and officiousness of its "Director," who carefully draws his salary and leaves all the work

to be done by his subordinates. Moreover, the Bureau meets with so little appreciation in South America that only one or two of the countries there have paid, or will pay, their quota to sustain it. The position of the House Committee in charge of the matter seems perfectly just—namely, that if the other nations do not care enough for the Bureau to help pay its cost, it may as well be dropped altogether. Anyhow, the personality of its "Director" is a standing affront to Spanish Americans, and he ought to be dropped, whether the Bureau is or not.

We feel it our duty to remind the *Tribune* that its continued silence on the Brazilian treaty is imperilling its hard-earned reputation as the greatest "reciprocity" organ. Its editorial articles on that subject have been far more numerous and dithyrambic than those of any of its contemporaries, and they are naturally perplexed when the acknowledged master of the topic has not a word to say upon some of its most important developments. Evidence has been published showing that Brazil was deceived into agreeing to the treaty. A most interesting letter from Minister Mendonça was printed in the *Evening Post* of April 5, showing how, in fact, an "understanding" and "arrangements" and "assurances" did exist between him and Mr. Blaine to the effect that had been stated. Will not the *Tribune* tell us what it thinks of that? Does it agree with Mr. Mendonça that Mr. Blaine's plans were all dashed by the McKinley Bill? And does it think that Mr. Mendonça himself is quite ingenuous in his reference to "any promise whose fulfillment was possible"? He now says that the "expressions attributed to me referred to conditions" anterior to the passage of the McKinley Bill, and that the treaty which was "virtually concluded on November 3, 1890," was signed with no reference to the former promise to exclude Spain. Yet on December 17, 1890, he declared in writing to Ruy Barbosa that "as to the advantages concerning sugar, we are now alone to enjoy them, to the exclusion of European colonies in America." There is a great deal of mystery in all this which we all look to the *Tribune* to clear up, and we beg it to bring its editorial mind to bear upon the subject. We take pains to say editorial mind, for we hope that the matter will not be left, as before, to the nondescript frothings of its Washington correspondent.

The result of the Rhode Island election last week can surprise no one who has watched the course of the canvass. The State has always gone Republican in the gubernatorial election of a Presidential year since the Republican party was formed, and although the widening of the electorate since 1888 has improved the chances of the Democrats, the odds would have

been in favor of the Republicans if the opposition had been at their best. But they were not. The Independent newspaper of the State, the *Providence Journal*, threw its influence in favor of the Republicans, largely on the ground that the Democratic nominees were far inferior to the Republican, but also partly on the ground that the Democratic position on national issues is as yet too uncertain to warrant endorsement of the party. Finally, Rhode Island has long been the most corrupt State in the Union, in the matter of elections, and, despite the safeguards of a secret-ballot law, it will always be possible for the party which has the most money at command to make it tell in its favor. Everybody knows that this party in Rhode Island is always the Republican—and this year more than ever, as the election involved the fate of Senator Aldrich, who has a tremendous "pull" on the manufacturers by reason of his prominence in tariff legislation. If the voters in Rhode Island who do not "belong" to either party had been unitedly and enthusiastically in favor of the Democrats, the election would have gone the other way. A good many of them have been so much disgusted by Democratic blundering at Washington—the "turning down" of Mills, the temporary triumph of a Tammany-Hill-Bourbon "combine," the fooling with the silver issue—that they found it easy to vote the Republican local ticket. It seems clear that there were enough Republican votes cast by such men to have turned the scales if the Democrats could have got them. There is a large class of such voters in Connecticut, New York, and every other close State.

The municipal elections in the West last week indicated a very gratifying growth in the tendency towards independent voting. Republican cities have chosen mayors who are Democrats in national politics, on the ground that they would make better municipal officials, and vice-versa. The rebuke to incompetent and corrupt administration of local affairs was particularly sharp in the State of Michigan; a number of cities which are usually good for Democratic majorities electing Republican or Independent mayors this year, because the voters were disgusted with the sort of Democratic rule they had been given. It has thus been shown very clearly that party lines are steadily breaking down in regard to local elections, and that the party label counts for less and less every year. It has also been demonstrated that the decent people can always get good government when they have interest enough in the matter to work for it. If they will not take the trouble to vote, however, they will not get it. In Milwaukee, for example, there are about 55,000 voters, but not 40,000 of them went to the polls at the recent election. Of course all those who had a personal interest in bad government turned out to endorse a Mayor who had

forfeited his claim to a reelection, while many thousands who did not honestly think him entitled to another term neglected their duty. The result was that he was reelected, and nobody who refused to take the trouble to vote against him has any right to complain.

The Maynard investigation at Albany was brought to an eminently fitting close last week by a refusal of the majority to allow the minority to summon any witnesses or to have any voice in the preparation of the report. The majority were unwilling to let the minority know even the probable date of their report. We doubt if they themselves look forward to the date with much pleasure. They have been devoting their spare time entirely to an anxious search for a method by which they could "let go" of the inquiry without subjecting themselves to fresh ridicule and humiliation. They had summoned new witnesses, but were afraid to examine them after their arrival, lest, like all previous witnesses, they should make the case against Judge Maynard appear worse than ever. From the beginning to the end of the inquiry, not one word was educed which can be used in a report "vindicating" the Judge. The net result has been to stamp his offence more clearly upon the minds of the people, and neither a majority nor a minority report is going to make any difference as to the opinion which the whole State has formed upon his conduct and that of his ally and instigator, Senator Hill.

Iowa is the first State to adopt a ballot-reform law this year, making the thirty-fourth in the list. Her law is to go into effect on November 1, and will thus be used in the Presidential election. It is similar in its provisions to the laws of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and three other States, the names of all candidates being arranged in separate columns, each party having a column to itself with the party name and an emblem at the top. The voter can mark the name of each candidate of his choice, or vote the straight party ticket by placing a single mark opposite the emblem. This is the form of ballot which certain Tammany leaders, including Croker, professed to be in favor of in this State at the opening of the present session of the Legislature, but they were unable to abandon the "paster" when the time for action came. The consequence will be that we shall have to conduct our Presidential election with the cumbersome and defective machinery which Gov. Hill's persistent opposition to genuine ballot reform forced upon the State.

The reported purchase by the Sugar Refineries Company of the Spreckels plant in Philadelphia, at a large advance on its cost, brings up the question whether such finan-

ciering can pay in the long run. The combination of sugar-refiners has changed its form from a Trust to that of a corporation organized under the law of New Jersey. Change of organization has not brought with it a change of heart. We do not yet know what economic and political results may flow from these large aggregations of capital. We can, however, assume that such combinations on a large scale are not different in intent, whether they remain Trusts or incorporate themselves in New Jersey or West Virginia. It is undoubtedly true that many incorporators have gone into New Jersey for the honest purpose of escaping the unnecessarily severe corporation law of other States, but this applies more particularly to manufacturing or trading firms with a comparatively small capitalization. The cases of the lead, sugar, and cotton-oil companies are different; the latter involve combination among a number of distinct and hitherto separate corporations in different States. The fact that the Standard Oil Trust is to be dissolved has been much commented upon. The Trust certificates are to be surrendered, and in lieu of them stock in the smaller and legally incorporated companies is to be turned over to the old holders. So long as the holders of the new shares are few in number, they can unite in harmonizing the different interests as before; but experience has taught us that time tells strongly against such harmony. There must be a combination of control if agreement is to continue. It is very probable, therefore, that in good time we shall hear of the incorporation in some liberal State of a general company which shall have power to hold the stock of other and smaller companies, and to which the shares of the various minor properties of the Standard Oil Trust can be transferred. The majesty of the law will thus have been vindicated *pro forma*, but the economic problem will remain as before.

From the financial point of view, it is plain that these great Trust corporations contain an element of weakness. The Distillery corporation, in order to control the output, bought up outside distilleries until it produced more than 90 per cent. of the spirits sold. To make a profit on the large capitalization necessary to purchase the opposing plants at twice or thrice their value, the company advanced the price of its product. That advance at once brought new competitors into the field who had to be bought off as before. This is the dilemma in which every huge attempt at monopoly has so far found itself. The sufferers have been in general the investing public, even more than the consuming public. So far as our experience has gone, it does not yet appear that we need any more stringent legislation, Federal or State, to protect the general public against the extortions of monopolies in the usual lines of trade, except in cases where the tariff gives the consumer bound into the hands of his ene-

my, by limiting the competition upon which he could otherwise rely. As we have said, the case of the foolish investor is worse than that of the consumer; but about the former, when once warned, the public need not concern themselves.

The way in which the attempt to raise the necessary money for the Grant monument fund has lagged in this city is fast becoming a national discredit. The subscription has been going on for years in the richest city of the richest country in the world, in order to mark in a very simple way, all things considered, the last resting-place of a man who was believed in his lifetime to have saved the nation which Washington founded. Things have come to such a pass that after seven years of collection there is much reason to fear that the \$350,000 which is needed to complete the required amount will not be forthcoming when the corner-stone of the monument is laid on the 27th instant, and the Mayor has actually felt it desirable to issue a proclamation calling on the citizens to avert, if possible, what would be an undoubted calamity. A final effort is to be made during the remaining three weeks, by special solicitation among the different trades and professions, through committees appointed for the purpose. The amount, when divided among the various bodies on whom it is proposed to call in this way, beginning with the lawyers, would be for each about \$10,000, which looks a little ridiculous. We trust, therefore, we shall be spared the humiliation of seeing the corner-stone laid without money in hand to finish the monument as designed. "A great people," as Napoleon said, when there was some demur over the salary of one of the marshals, "does not haggle over its glory," and it may be said with equal truth that a great people ought not to commemorate its heroes "on tick."

The anxiety of the unemployed workmen in London to hear a sermon from the Dean of St. Paul's is not so great a tribute to the power of the pulpit as might at first sight be supposed. This is clear from their indignation when, after flocking to the cathedral in crowds, they were compelled to listen to a sermon which contained "no reference whatever to workingmen." It was not a sermon as such that they wanted to hear, but a loose harangue on the "cause of labor," interspersed with words of warning to the rich and appeals to the State to "do something" for the unemployed. No other result could well be expected from the attitude of Cardinal Manning and the Bishop of London at the time of the dockers' strike. They went far to give laboring men, especially striking or unemployed workingmen, the idea that the pulpit of London was ready to rival Trafalgar Square as a place for pitching into employers and crying up the wrongs of laborers. No wonder that they now go to church,

not for the purpose of receiving the incitements and consolations of religion, but to obtain a religious sanction for their demands. The man whom they ought to invite to preach to them is Mr. Charles Booth, who could demonstrate to them mathematically that Mansion House funds and other expedients for the temporary relief of the unemployed only swell their numbers and deepen their misery.

The discussion in the House of Commons on the escape of William Henry Hurlbert from the English police on a charge of perjury leaves the blame nominally on poor Mr. Stephenson, the Solicitor to the Treasury, who had charge of the prosecution, and has in his report told a piteous tale of the way in which somebody "leaked" when he got the warrant out for Hurlbert's apprehension. The Radicals are apparently, and with just reason, very angry about it, for we presume there are very few people in England who believe that Hurlbert could have escaped if there had been any serious desire on the part of the Crown officials to catch him. The spectacle of his prosecution on such a charge would have been too painful and scandalous for the Unionists. The "Irish Patriotic League" hired him to write a book on Ireland in the character of a thoughtful and pious American, in which he gave the Irish "fits," and which sold largely and was a first-rate campaign document for the Unionists. Moreover, he was to several highly placed Unionists, Mr. Chamberlain in particular, a sort of mentor on American questions, far exceeding Squire Smalley as an authority—the Squire not having much head for politics. Hurlbert told him how our Government was one of divided powers, each independent in its own sphere; how the American newspapers were all edited and written by wicked Irish Fenians; how Congress framed legislation in order to catch the Irish vote; how fond, moreover, "the best Americans" were of shooting Irish rioters, and how fond the Irish were of killing negroes, and how much more numerous evictions of tenants were in New York city than in Ireland, and other little items which the Birmingham orator used like grape and canister on the Gladstonian foe. Besides this, Hurlbert was a welcome guest at scores of "great houses." To have such a man brought to the bar for perjury by a "strange woman" was something the Unionist cause could not stand. It had to be avoided just as much as the production of the Duke of Cambridge in a police court, on the charge preferred by a reporter. The framework of society and the integrity of the Empire are, after all, more important things than the conviction of any perjurer whatsoever. So it was avoided. Hurlbert got notice, and he fled, and he has found a place that is safe under the treaties, and he now snaps his fingers at Gladys and the Gladstonians.

THE REAL "THEORISTS" IN POLITICS.

No taunt has been oftener thrown at those who have endeavored to elevate the tone and methods of party government than the one which charges them with being a set of unpractical dreamers, whose eyes are fixed upon unattainable visions, and who are utterly unable to accomplish anything definite and practical. Over against them have been set the hard-headed and keen-sighted "practical politicians," the men who have acquired their political wisdom in the hard school of experience—in running caucuses and fixing conventions, in "getting the delegates" and the nominations, in making "deals" and "trades," in "knifing" and running ahead of the ticket. No cobwebs of fanciful political reform ever attach themselves to such men, who move straight on to the attainment of their purposes. It is all very well to tickle the ears of people with the fine-sounding phrases of the political theorists and reformers, but when you want to get anything done, any actual piece of legislation written in the statute-books, you must leave the visionaries and deal with the practical politicians.

This is an ancient and venerable view of politics, which has been proved false so many times that one can but wonder at its persistence. There is no man so utterly at a loss in all questions of high legislative importance, no man who finds the study of details and the processes of persuasion so distasteful, as the man who has spent his days in political intrigue, where tricks and appeals to the basest motives have been his stock in trade. The very men who have made the most colossal failures as legislators have been the men who have worked their way up to positions of responsibility by means of the low arts of the practical politician. Look at the Senatorial careers of Conkling and Mahone and Quay, and, observing their utter barrenness in all legislation not of the most pronounced partisan character, contrast their records with those of their contemporaries and party associates who have really put through the important legislation of the Senate. It will be easily seen how the men who are the great generals and masters in politics, in the low sense of that word, are all at fault when it comes to the actual business of making laws for the good of the whole people.

Burke set forth this truth in language which is well worth recalling at the present moment:

"In truth, the tribe of vulgar politicians are the lowest of our species. There is no trade so vile and mechanical as government in their hands. . . . They are out of themselves in any course of conduct recommended only by conscience and glory. A large, liberal, and prospective view of the interests of States passes with them for romance; and the principles that recommend it, for the wanderings of a disordered imagination. The calculators compute them out of their senses. The jesters and buffoons shame them out of everything grand and elevated. Littleness in object and in means to them appears soundness and sobriety. They think there is nothing worth pursuit but that which they can handle; which they can measure with a two-foot rule; which they can tell upon ten fingers."

No better illustration of these words was ever furnished than that now to be seen in the condition of public business in this State. The Legislature is filled with the most "practical" men ever brought together at Albany. On the side of the majority, at least, there is not a man, we suppose, who would not consider himself insulted if he were called a "theorist." Such a mass of brute common sense, without the faintest admixture of rose-colored views, was probably never before applied to the work of legislation. And it has had the advantage of the presence and guidance of the greatest practical politician of the age. He is ineffably weary of his duties in the United States Senate, where such stupid and profitless subjects as the currency, the tariff, the foreign policy of the Administration are under discussion, and leaves his seat there to go to Albany in order to show his party and the world what real political management is.

The result is, a tangle and dead-lock and outbreak of dissensions in his own party such as have rarely, if ever, been equalled. He has had notice publicly served upon him by members of his own party that he has committed a fearful blunder—which is, of course, worse than a crime in a politician—in going to Albany at all, and has been threatened with the tying up of all his measures unless he would take himself off. And he has actually been forced to retreat before the storm which has broken out in his very face. It must be remembered, too, that this collapse has occurred in the very matters where the practical politician has always claimed pre-eminence. The bills that have rent the party into factions are "political" bills. They make no pretence of being for the good of the whole people: they are partisan measures, meant to secure party advantages and pay party debts; yet even on these the plain, every-day men, who know nothing about iridescent dreams, but who assert their ability to get everything in sight for themselves and their party, have gone hopelessly to wreck.

The truth is, these men who use the word "theorist" as their choicest term of contempt, are themselves the real political theorists. Their idea that an organization can take the place of a policy is nothing but a theory, and a most unfounded one. Their belief that the people will not know the difference between a man who has thrust himself forward as a product of the machine, and a man who has gained prominence by force of ability and character, is one of the most ludicrous and baseless fancies that ever entered the mind of man. It is such stuff as dreams are made of. Senator Hill will not have lived in vain, because he will leave it writ large in the memories of Americans that the legitimate ending of a career of unscrupulous adroitness and shifty political scheming is the bitter realization of his own impotence, of the angry distrust and ill-will even of his own party, and of the thoroughgoing contempt of the people at large.

CRIMINAL LIBEL.

THE Penal Code of this State, while defining criminal libel as a misdemeanor, punishable, like other misdemeanors, by fine and imprisonment, makes this important qualification (section 244):

"The publication is justified when the matter charged as libellous is true, and was published with good motives and for justifiable ends. The publication is excused when it is honestly made, in the belief of its truth, and upon reasonable grounds for this belief, and consists of fair comments upon the conduct of a person in respect of public affairs."

Now, if we are not greatly mistaken, numerous as misdemeanors are, libel is the only one which is ever legally justifiable, or indeed legally excusable. There may, in other cases, be many matters alleged as furnishing moral excuse in mitigation of punishment, but libel is the only misdemeanor which the law declares beforehand may, under certain conditions, be not only excusable, but praiseworthy. Therefore, no libel is, as a matter of course, a punishable offence. It may prove, on the contrary, when looked into, a great public service. Probably as gross a libel as was ever printed, so far as form went, was the article headed "Two Thieves," with which the *New York Times*, twenty-two years ago, began its attack on the Tweed Ring. But it proved to be one of the greatest services ever rendered by a journal to the community in which it was published. If this distinction did not exist, if every charge or accusatory comment on the action or fitness of a public official were necessarily, because likely to damage him in popular estimation, a criminal offence, not only the freedom but the usefulness of the public press in our day would be at an end. No trustworthy person would follow a calling surrounded with such risks, as no trustworthy person does in despotic countries.

Moreover, the editor of every well-established daily newspaper has already, through the mere fact of being the editor, given tremendous bail for his appearance to answer any charge against him arising out of his manner of doing his editorial work. To run away would be to sacrifice everything he cares about in the world. To add on to this security the thousand-dollar bond of another person is for the most part a ridiculous proceeding.

If all this be true, the present legal mode of bringing editors into court to answer charges of criminal libel is not only oppressive, but absurd. It is precisely the same as that followed in the case of thieves, or burglars, or confidence men, although there can be no such thing as justifiable theft, or burglary, or cheating, since there is no possible way in which a thief by thieving, or a burglar by "burgling," can render the community a service. It is true that in other civilized countries, whatever the law may be, the practice is adapted to the facts of the situation. An editor charged with libel in England or France receives a note from the magistrate or from the prosecuting officer, requesting him to appear at a certain hour on a certain day. At the

worst, this notice is given in the form of a summons. But in these countries great care is taken, in the filling of places on the police bench, especially in the great cities, to see that the magistrates are men of high character, learned in the law, and responsible in feeling as in fact to the more intelligent, respectable, and educated portion of the community, because they belong to it. The use of the process of their courts for purposes of insult, or vexation, or annoyance would drive such men in disgrace from their seats.

In this city we have laid aside all these precautions. We have commented so often in these columns on the manner in which Tammany fills the police justiceships, that we need not, for the purposes of our present argument, go over the ground again. We do not say there are no men among the police justices who are fit for their places. This would be unjust. But we do say that there are enough bad ones to make it perfectly easy for any rascal in good Tammany standing to borrow and use, with their connivance, the process of arrest for the purposes of vexing and oppressing personal or political enemies. This has been done, since Tammany came into power, four times, on pretexts some of them of the utmost frivolity, and without the least expectation of carrying the prosecution any further than the arrest, which is made as annoying as possible, and is made, therefore, to serve as punishment before trial at the hands of a party in the cause.

It may be said that four times are not many, but they are enough to serve as a warning, to inspire timidity among editors, and impose silence on such of them as do not care to pass three or four hours in a police court among criminals and semi-criminals, and, besides the trouble of procuring bail, to incur the expense of employing counsel and preparing a grave answer to a ragamuffin before the Grand Jury. The remedy is very simple. Arrests for libel on the police justices' warrants should be abolished, and the complainant be compelled to go in the first instance, as he has to do now in the second instance, before the Grand Jury and state his case. The Grand Jury would then pass, as they do now, on its reasonableness, and decide, as they do now, whether it had enough merit to warrant its being tried, and grant a warrant or summons, or refuse it, accordingly. Nobody's interest would suffer by this change. Both parties would escape the empty formality of the preliminary arraignment in the police court; the complainant would lose no right which he now possesses, and the defendant would be protected against needless insult and annoyance before it was known whether he was really a malicious slanderer or a public benefactor.

GENUINE FRIENDS OF LABOR.

MR. J. PIERPONT MORGAN'S gift of a half-million dollars for the endowment of Col.

Auchmuty's New York Trade Schools is as noble and beneficent a use of wealth as could well be conceived. It must have carried to the heart of Col. Auchmuty, who has devoted ten years of earnest labor to the building up of these schools, unspeakable joy and thankfulness. As he said in his speech announcing the gift at the exercises of the graduating class on Thursday evening, it has been his fortune to have his work appreciated in a way that seldom falls to the lot of any man. He has now perfect assurance, not only that the work of his schools can be extended and enlarged during his lifetime, but that it will be continued after his connection with them shall have ended. Mr. Morgan's gift has converted a successful experiment of great value into a permanent institution of enduring and continually broadening usefulness to the whole country.

True beneficence has been defined as "that which helps a man to do the work which he is most fitted for, not that which keeps and encourages him in idleness," and this is precisely the object of Col. Auchmuty's schools. His idea is to supply to young men desiring to learn useful trades the means of doing so at a small price and in a thorough manner. In his teaching, the manual and scientific branches of a trade are so combined that the pupil acquires not merely skill, but a knowledge of the principles which underlie his work, and is thus started in the direction of constant growth and development. This is the kind of instruction which breeds master mechanics and inventors. It gives a man a sense of pride in his trade by making him a master of its technique and its principles, and sends him into the world as a living example of the dignity of honest labor. Practical instruction in various trades, such as plumbing, plastering, stone-cutting, painting, brick-laying, carpentering, and tailoring, is given by master mechanics and other competent teachers, and the instruction is accompanied when necessary by the study of technical books and trade papers. The end sought is "to enable young men to learn the science and practice of certain trades thoroughly, expeditiously, and economically, leaving speed of execution to be acquired at real work after leaving the school."

From the outset of his work, Col. Auchmuty has met with the opposition and ill-will of the trade-unions, many of whose members regard his schools as a menace to their welfare. In fact, the establishment of such schools in this and other States has been made necessary by the rules adopted by many organized trades forbidding the employment of more than a very small number of apprentices. In some trades a master mechanic is forbidden to employ more than four apprentices, in others more than two, for a term of four years. Under these rules a master mechanic can graduate only one journeyman a year, or one in two years. The effect of this practice has been to keep the American supply of journeyman mechanics

down to only about a fourth of the demand. It is estimated from the figures of the census that out of \$23,000,000 paid annually to mechanics in the building trades of New York city, less than \$9,000,000 goes to those born here. The number of new journeymen trained by the trades themselves is not adequate to fill the vacancies, much less to supply the constantly increasing demand for larger forces. Many foreign mechanics are induced to come here, some to make this country their home, and others to work here during a busy period and then return to Europe with their savings.

The trade-unions are not to be blamed too sweepingly for this condition of affairs. In the large cities the employment of apprentices is not considered practicable by even the opponents of trade-unionism. The work has to be done so rapidly in many trades that there is no time to devote to the instruction of beginners. This is true, for example, of the type-setting business. All the recruits for the city printing-offices come from the country. Non-union offices in this city, which have no trade reasons for declining to take apprentices, take only a few of them because there is no time for teaching them. This is the case with many other trades. In fact, if it were not for the country supply of fresh journeymen, the American-born contingent of skilled labor would be much smaller than it is. Then, too, there is a feeling in all the trades that the day of apprenticeships has gone by; that there is something like slavery in the binding of a boy to a master for a long term of years, and that the boy, like the man, ought to be permitted to choose his employer and place of work.

All this goes to show the great need of manual schools like those which Col. Auchmuty has founded. Without them, there would soon come a day, if it be not already arrived, when an American boy who desired to learn a trade would be utterly unable to find instruction. We should then as a nation be in the curious position of drawing upon foreign countries for all our skilled labor, as we are now drawing for a great part of it. The folly of a course like this is too obvious to require discussion. We should be denying to a large portion of the youth of the country all opportunities for learning useful trades, and thus fitting themselves for industrious and reputable lives. This is practically what we should be doing in all our large cities now were it not for the trade schools, and yet it is in the cities that the need of useful trades for the rising generation is most felt, both as regards their own future welfare and the moral and political health of the community.

The statistics of Colonel Auchmuty's school show how great its need is, and with what appreciation it is regarded by the persons whom it seeks to benefit. During its first season there were 30 pupils, during the second 98, the third 207, and so on by steady increase till, during the one

just closed, which was the tenth, there were 589. There are somewhat similar schools in a number of other States, and in all parts of the country there is a steadily growing interest in their work and a constantly increasing sense of its value to the whole country. Surely the rich men who, like Mr. Morgan, contribute their wealth to an educational mission of this character, deserve the highest praise from all Americans who love their country and are concerned for its future development and progress.

MR. WHISTLER'S TRIUMPH.

LONDON, March 23, 1892.

It is reversing the usual order of things when the French, for a fad, affect indifference to technique in art, and the English show signs of beginning to appreciate its value. But just as in Paris the *fin de siècle* Rosierians and Idealists, under Sar Peladon and Octave Uzanne, are extolling idea and pretending to despise form in a work of art, in London, etchings by Mr. Whistler and Mr. Haden, from the late Hutchinson and Drake collections, have brought enormous prices when productions of popular Academicians have been resold for a song instead of the original thousands; while at the present moment all the world is rushing to see the exhibition of Mr. Whistler's paintings. It is true that the presence of New York art dealers at Sotheby's and Christie's had much to do with sending up the prices of rare states and prints; that the purchase by the French Government of the portrait of Mr. Whistler's mother has suddenly revealed to Englishmen that he might after all be a painter as well as an eccentric creature who indulges in amusing law-suits, and whose pencil is a clever weapon in newspaper duels. But no matter whence came the inspiration, the fact remains that just now artistic interest centres in the Bond Street Goupil Gallery rather than at Durand-Ruel's.

To those who look only for eccentricity from Mr. Whistler the show must be a disappointment. There are none of the yellow canopies and yellow walls, none of the fluttering butterflies and original schemes of decoration which his name suggests. The pictures, many in old and tarnished frames, hang on Messrs. Bousod & Valadon's red walls as at other times do those of the ordinary exhibitor, and the visitor looks at them from the upholstered sofa of commonplace commerce. The one old Whistler touch is in the catalogue, in which he has collected, as of yore, choice criticisms by men of note who ridiculed him once but to turn the laugh now against themselves. The device lacks novelty, but just after his triumph in France it is natural, and appropriate too, that he should have his jest again at the expense of the blundering English critics who mistook the master for a mountebank. Ruskin's teachings are already obsolete, save in the provinces; Whistler's power has grown with the years.

But to those who delight in the artistic qualities of his work, in its beauty of color and form, its truth to the most subtle effects of nature, its perfect impressionism in the best sense of the word, the exhibition is almost inexhaustible in its interest. It is probably the most representative he has ever given. The forty-four canvases include all his most famous pictures save a few—the portrait of his mother and the "White Girl,"

now in New York, being the most notable among the missing—and also fine examples of his every period and manner: his earlier studies of detail, his Nocturnes and Symphonies, his wonderful portraits—of Miss Rose Corder, Miss Alexander, Carlyle, Lady Archibald Campbell—paintings so well known that it is useless now to do more than mention them. And really to me the importance of this new exhibition is less in any special contributions to it than in the estimate which, as a whole, it gives of Mr. Whistler's true rank as an artist and of his influence over the younger generation of painters. There is nothing more striking about the collection than what seems, as one first goes through the gallery, its intensely modern character. With the Champ de Mars in one's mind, with the latest efforts of the New English Art Club fresh in one's memory, even not forgetting Monet's forty impressions of a haystack, Mr. Whistler's work might be thought the very latest outcome of the most modern movement in art. The fact is, that Mr. Whistler was a quarter of a century or more in advance of his contemporaries: 1855 is the date on one canvas, the greater number belong to the sixties. He was an Impressionist almost before the name impressionism in art had been heard. The world wondered when Monet a year ago showed those forty haystacks under forty atmospheric conditions, is wondering now at his almost as many treatments of a poplar tree to be seen at Durand-Ruel's. But what are most of Mr. Whistler's Nocturnes but impressions of the river as he watched it from his Chelsea window, looking over to the plumbago works and the church spire and up to old Battersea Bridge?

No wonder that not so many years ago every one, with Ruskin, could find in his genius merely the insolence of a coxcomb flinging his paintpot in the public's face. He had not then had time to educate his critics. Indeed, his wide, far-reaching influence over modern painting is only beginning to be felt, and probably it has never been so emphasized as it is now by the collection at Goupil's. I have heard it argued that it was because he was so determined to force the public to see just those qualities which he considers most essential in art, that in his Nocturnes he has so often sacrificed all others to them. It seems unlikely to me that Mr. Whistler ever had the public—Carlyle's majority—sufficiently at heart to consider them at all. But had he been charitably inclined, and, for the benefit of the ignorant, willing to illustrate that now famous explanation of his in court that a Nocturne of his represented, not merely a morning's work, but the knowledge of a lifetime, he could not have done better than to exhibit, as he is doing now, those of his earlier canvases which are strongest in color and most filled with detail. At these no one can look and continue to believe that it was to conceal his weakness of drawing and indifference to color that he recorded in paint his impressions of twilight and night when form is vague and indistinct and color subdued. Pictures like the "Little White Girl," with the exquisitely worked out geraniums against the muslin gown; the "Gold Screen," with the girl in sumptuous Japanese robes, Japanese fans at her feet; "The Lange Leizen—of the Six Marks," an arrangement of beautiful rich Japanese drapery and china; "The Music-Room," with the old-fashioned furniture and dress and the elaborate design on the window curtains reflected in the mirror; "The Balcony"—pictures like these are distinguished by a masterly rendering of

detail which few of the old Dutchmen could rival, much less surpass, a beauty of color which the Venetians might have envied. And it is because he can, when he chooses, paint like this, that Mr. Whistler is qualified to create his Nocturnes, his Symphonies, his Arrangements—because he can, if he wants, paint the sea as brilliantly blue as the sky above, breaking in white foam on solidly handled rocks, as in the "Blue Wave, Biarritz," which Mr. Henry Moore might have taken as his standard, that he knows how to suggest the pale neutral grays and greens at the end of a dull day, just as the "Oyster Smacks" are pushing out from shore. It was the apparent simplicity of his methods, the supposed ease with which the work was done, that so disturbed and puzzled the critics—the fear that he was making a jest of them that led them to lose their tempers and seek to overwhelm him with the storm of their abuse through which he has steered his course so gayly. But the last twenty or thirty years have proved that what seemed child's play to the uninitiated was the most difficult problem to the student, a problem to be solved only by genius. And perhaps the most curious as well as interesting fact in connection with the Goupil Gallery exhibitions is the way papers and critics whose sayings are quoted in the catalogue have, with a few exceptions, veered around and consented to recognize something besides the jester in Mr. Whistler. For his next catalogue he will not have so many choice quotations.

But if his show reminds one of the influence he has had on the present generation, it also reveals the influences which have been most active in his own development. He himself has written his confession of faith in Velasquez and the Japanese masters. But even if he had not, his portraits, especially that of Miss Alexander, that fine harmony in gray and green, would be sufficient proof of the debt he owes to the one; while his careful study of the art of Japan is marked, not so much in his renderings of purely Japanese subjects, the "Gold Screen" and the "Lange Leizen," for example, as in the Chelsea Nocturnes and Symphonies, where a spray of leaves distinctly Japanese in character rises in the foreground, or figures as Japanese in treatment stand and walk on the banks of the Thames. Again, there is something of the feeling, something of the color scheme of Terburg, who might have been a student of Whistler's, in a portrait like the Carlyle. But, accepting all that the masters with whom he was most in sympathy could give, he added far more of his own. For the truly original man is he who knows how to make his own use of great work that has been already produced, not to imitate it, but to create a new masterpiece out of the old material. Is this not exactly what the Rossettis and Swinburnes of our time have done in poetry—what the greatest men have done throughout the ages?

It should not be forgotten in America that Mr. Whistler is an American of Americans; it may therefore be appropriately asked, What has America done for him? It has treated him with—if possible—even more ignorance and coldness than England; this, of course, coming from the desire of the Anglomaniac to out-English the English. It is true that the "White Girl" is, or was, in the Metropolitan Museum; it is also true that the portrait of his mother went travelling around America, only to be bought in the end for the gallery which has the best chance of assuring immortality to the artists represented within its walls. There is in Boston, I believe, at the present moment a

public building in process of decoration by Americans. Has Mr. Whistler, the greatest decorator America has ever produced, been asked to give distinction and importance to what otherwise may be only a striking failure? If he has not—and I am almost sure this is the case—it is at least not too late for Americans at once to endeavor to obtain from him one, if no more, of the few examples of his work still in his possession, which, however, before long may be distributed among galleries everywhere except in his native land. N. N.

ST. JOSEPH'S DAY IN NAPLES.

NAPLES, March 19, 1892.

"Was there ever such a joyous, happy-go-lucky, noisy, reckless, feckless people as the Neapolitans?" said a grave Piedmontese to me just now, as, despairing of writing a letter in his own room facing the street, he sought refuge in mine, which overlooks the demolition and reconstruction carried on on parallel lines between Via Medina and O'Porto. "Here are you bemoaning and bewailing the misery of Naples, taking your friends willy-nilly into the *fondaci*, the slums, the blind alleys, and the cellars, while I can show you thousands of the very poorest, an hour hence, at their dinner of macaroni and *zeppole*, with a carafe of wine on every table, so that by night-time we shall have no end of wounded and beaten, and to-morrow 'inquiries' at the hospitals for which no one will be the wiser." "And do you really grudge the poor, nay the poorest, of one sole quarter of Naples a jollification—one dinner washed down with wine that ought to cost them a farthing a litre, pure, light, bright *asprino*, which never turned the weakest head, or ruby-like *Posillipo*, which cheers but does not inebriate, and which the *dazio consumo* brings up to half a lire without its genuineness being guaranteed? And pray in how many houses of the aristocracy and the far richer burgher will more food be consumed and more wine and liqueurs be drunk than ought to enter into one human body, and which would, converted into money, keep a family of these poor slummers for a month? You may have my room, but not my company." And this last reassuring taunt so enchanting the grumbler that he made no further complaints, I left him in possession and set out to see the Saint in all his glory.

A dear saint's day it is to the generation now dying out, for Mazzini's name was Joseph, and so was Garibaldi's—San Giuseppes both. But, be the truth told, this is "a generation that knew not either of our Josephs," and though last Sunday, on the twentieth anniversary of Mazzini's death, the hall of Tarsia was crowded to listen to Prof. Bovio's commemoration of the "Apostle of Italian Unity," his own students and the *élite* of the working classes formed his audience; the plebs shone by their absence. But Mazzini has never been popular in Naples; on the contrary, Garibaldi was the saint, the hero, the idol of Naples thirty years ago. The classes and the masses were at his feet. But now you seek in vain for the images and portraits of Garibaldi above the macaroni-venders, or the fish-friers, or the famous *zeppole* confectioners. No! the real genuine St. Joseph is reenthroned, and, with the baby Jesus in his arms, reigns supreme in his old quarter, which extends from the Quartiere S. Ferdinando to the Tribunale.

"Signora, signora," said my charming *camariere*, "you can't think of going out into that mob [she also is a Piedmontese]—you, who are still *influenzata*!" But go I did, and have

spent just five hours fêting St. Joseph. First, there were endless Josephs and Josephines of our acquaintance to whom it was proper to send bouquets. One of these, an old friend and guide to the slums, agreed to take us through "the fair" if we would go first to see the old men and women fed by the Little Sisters of the Poor at the hospital on the Corso Vittorio Emanuele. There was nothing for it but to yield, and in about half an hour the *carrozzella* halted before a magnificent edifice where the splendid carriages of the Neapolitan aristocracy stood empty in considerable numbers. Entering, we were greeted by a number of ladies, especially young girls, and begged by the Little Sisters to enter all the rooms and see for ourselves. On the ground floor in the large refectory there were smoking-bowls of macaroni, red with tomato sauce and yellow with cheese, and about 200 nice, clean old men seated with bottles of wine, fruit, and cheese beside their plates. His Eminence Cardinal Sanfelice, is "influenzaed," as is about every third person in Naples, so he had delegated the chaplain of the royal palace to officiate. After blessing the guests and sprinkling holy water over the macaroni (a very few drops, I am glad to say), he ladled it out himself, and very pretty girls with blue scarfs, from a school near by, took round a plate to each; then followed a plate of fried fish and fried potatoes, a fried egg (to-day is Saturday, so maigre must be observed, though it is San Giuseppe), and finally piles of *zeppole*, really an exquisite light toss-up, with cream or jam in the middle, custard puddings, and fruit. "You must come and see the old women," said one of the Little Sisters, and we went up the clean slate stairs to a similar refectory, where all the old women were assembled waiting impatiently for the archpriest to come and "bless them also." We went into the dormitories, marvels of cleanliness, with good iron bedsteads, mattresses, and patchwork quilts; then into the infirmary, where, strange to say, nobody was ill save one old bedridden creature whose table was spread in grand style. On ordinary occasions all "want to be ill," because the food for the sick is more dainty; but to-day the menu of the common table had cured them all. From the upper windows the view of Naples, of the sea, Capri, Vesuvius, Castellamare, was simply enchanting. Clearly these old folks, whose life has been of the hardest in their youth and middle age, are having a good time of it now, and won't be in a hurry to go to paradise.

Returning to the refectory, the priest had come up, and the old women were lapping up their macaroni, many of them finding it difficult to use their forks, and, when no one was looking, using the first three forefingers with lightning speed. Several were so decrepit that they had to be fed by the Sisters. I wanted to know all about the foundation and the budget, but this was not a day for investigations. "Come and see us at any time between ten and four, and we can tell you all." What we know is, that this institution is one of the many established everywhere by these "Little French Sisters," who collect money, food, clothing, furniture, rags, coffee grounds, broken meat from the hotels and wealthy houses; fruit, vegetables, fish, cooked meat, tripe from the poor venders in the poorest quarters, and so carry on their almshouse. Of ices left in the glasses they make a delicious syrup for the sick. It is perfectly wonderful to note the cleanliness, the order, the general air of comfort, that cannot be improvised for a festival.

Quite delighted with the visit, I told my

friend that if the archpriest would give us a plate of macaroni, I could stay all day, but not a minute longer with the inviting odor only in my breakfastless vitals. So, in another *carrozzella*, down we dropped to see the poor families at their dinners on the pavements in the streets. We also breakfasted religiously on macaroni and *zeppole*, then wound our way through the fair of San Giuseppe, of which our hotel is the centre. Truly the noise is deafening—the shouts of the venders of a hundred wares, of the traditional Neapolitan toy, costing two farthings (merely a tin flag which whirls round a tin handle, crying *crik, crik, crik*), whistles, trumpets, all the main stock of every fair contributing to the universal rowdiedow. Then, of course, Punchinello is everywhere, on horseback and on foot, jumping through rings, clapping his tin circles, performing in the toy theatres, and delighting all children, aristos or plebs. And all mammas, rich or poor, bring their bairns, especially if they are Giuseppees or Giuseppinas, and all buy toys—the dolls' houses and doll belongings, wonderful to behold; lovely beds and bedding, dolls' kitchens and private drawing-rooms, dolls' wardrobes and dinner services, dolls' cradles, perfect imitations of the real Neapolitan cradle, all artistic, light, and cheap—all save the dolls themselves, which are hideous to view. The gift of a real English doll to an Italian child forms the ne-plus-ultra of generosity even to well-to-do children. But to-day all the girls got such dolls as there were, and never rested till all the appurtenances of doll life had been added. The prices are not excessive, as I proved by investing half a dollar in twenty-five different presents; then, laden with the spoil, reached my own room in safety, to find five invitations from different friends to "fare il San Giuseppe," to fête the brother, or husband, or lover; but on the whole I think I shall not venture out again in the crowd, so dense that you can walk on their heads.

San Giuseppe has made clear to me certain things which were dark mysteries till now. Visiting the other day some of the new houses wrested at last by the Royal Commissary, and now by the new municipal government, from the Society who contracted for the sanitation of Naples, and who have built splendid houses for the rich and middle classes, but none for the evicted slummers, we were astonished to see the numbers already ousted from the poorest *fondaci*, cellars and dog kennels, fairly installed in their new abodes, blessed with Serino water turned on in each room, a sink apiece, and plenty of air and light. For none of these blessings were they at all thankful, and I am sorry to say that they had managed in less than two months to reduce the new abodes to a state of dirt and mess which gave them a strong family likeness to the old tenements demolished. "Well, what have you to grumble at now?" I asked of a woman whom I recognized. "Everything, signora. The porter won't let the children play on the stairs, we can't go down to the court-yard to wash, there is no balcony, and what's the use of all those charcoal stoves for us who have nothing to cook?" "Come here, come here," said a decent-looking woman, "and see how we are ruined." We went to the ground floor, and found a workshop in two very decent rooms, for which only six lire a month was paid. The husband was pleading, gesticulating, with the porter, who, shrugging his shoulders and turning up the palms of his hands, was clearly pantomiming, "Non possumus." He begged us to interfere. "See here! all these horses

and helmets," and there were scores of both. "These are paper-mashed in a mould [papier maché of the coarsest imaginable quality]. They must be dry before they can be painted to look like wood. And here, with no sun, dry they won't, and if they are not consigned for the 18th, they will be left on our hands." Our promises to see if his apartment could not be exchanged for one on the roof, brought no consolation. It was no use unless the horses could be consigned on the 18th! Of course, the great run upon them is on Saint Joseph's day.

When I say that the municipality has succeeded in wresting some half-a-dozen tenements from the Society for housing the evicted, I do not mean that anything has been done expressly for the poor. But as they could not well be all left out in the streets, the houses designed for a better class of workmen have been assigned to some of them at five lire a room per month for the next three years. These houses are not at all adapted to this class of slummers, and their ironical allusions to the "three and more charcoal stoves, with nothing to cook over them," are justifiable. No matter; here will soon be 4,000 of the poorest decently housed, and if they have to walk a long distance to their work, or rather to the seashore where they hope to find a hand-to-mouth job, that is no such great hardship. The shops are beginning to follow their customers, and a hard life have the porters to keep the venders in those shops and off the pavement. One of their great trials is that they have been taken away from their good old parish priest and don't know where to go. There are as yet no infant schools or even communal schools in the new quarter, and until the citizens set to and do something on their own account, it is useless to bemoan that the French sisters of charity have all the hospitals, places of education, and almshouses in their hands.

Not all, by the way. Yesterday we accompanied some American ladies to the flourishing Froebelian Institute founded by Mme. Schwabe some five and twenty years ago. The building, given or lent, almost tumbled about their ears, and here also the proverb, "All evil harms not," proves true. The boarding-school had to be given up, and, instead, a popular kindergarten and elementary school substituted. The few habitable rooms up stairs are reserved for the normal school for women licensed to teach in the elementary schools, who here learn the kindergarten-school system thoroughly. The present directress is a German, the director an Italian. They work well together, and have in the infant schools 420 waifs and strays from the slums, who are taught cleanliness and order, have soup at midday, and are generally dressed and booted by the parents of the well-to-do children who frequent the same school, eating the same soup and paying seven lire a month. The same system is maintained in the elementary classes. Who can be made to pay for who can't. The mistresses and professors for the high and kindergarten schools number forty-five, the whole "family" over a thousand; yet Miss Baermann and Signor Quarati manage to pay all and have no debts, with something over eleven thousand dollars a year. This includes the salaries, the soup, the gratis pinafores and washing of the same, the lighting and fire for cooking. The boarding-schools could not maintain more than a tenth of the number. These children, left in their homes at night and on Sundays, are a reforming influence there. The mothers are proud of them; they keep neat and do not pawn the

dresses given, they wash the children and clean their heads. Great excitement prevailed during our visit, for the name of the beloved director is Joseph, and he was to be got rid of early, on some pretext or other, because the children and the teachers were going to deck his room and prepare garlands and flowers for St. Joseph's namesake. All the little St. Josephs also were to have toys. It was delightful to see what love and kindness prevails. So struck was the American lady by the intelligence, brightness, and cleanliness of the children that she could hardly believe that they were waifs and strays from the slums, but one ten-minutes' dive down from the back of our hotel, though we did not visit by any means the worst parts of Naples, convinced her of the necessity and the use of these institutions for children and parents both.

20th.—As it was too late to post last night, I am happy to add this morning that the early newspapers give no additional items of fights or other disorders as the result of feasting San Giuseppe. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

PSYCHICAL SCIENCE AT THE WORLD'S FAIR IN 1893.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Committee on a Psychical Science Congress to be held in connection with the World's Columbian Exposition of 1893 in Chicago, have issued their preliminary announcement, for the special purpose, they say, of soliciting the suggestions and obtaining the coöperation of all persons who are interested in psychical research throughout the world, in order that the Congress may find a truly international representation. They propose to bring psychical research fully and fairly before the bar of public opinion, to rid it of what may be found wrong, bad, or unsound, and to invest it, if possible, with the dignity of a true science. One means to this end is assured at the outset by the effective measures taken to exclude cranks and other objectionable persons. It is probable that many or most of the leading psychical researchers of all countries will be represented. The phenomena of psychical science are to be treated both historically and analytically, by means of addresses from the highest authorities in their several departments, and also by means of actual experiments conducted before audiences. Among the subjects which the Committee specify are: The general history of psychical phenomena, the evolution of human testimony concerning them, the results of original individual research, and the origin and growth of psychical societies—which latter are already comparatively numerous. Various classes of psychical phenomena are grouped under several heads, and include those of telepathy or thought-transfer; of mesmerism or hypnotism; of hallucinations; of premonitions; of apparitions of the living and the dead; of clairvoyance, clairaudience, psychometry, the mediumistic trance, etc.—of the whole range of these psycho-physical manifestations upon which modern spiritualism is based. Finally, the correlation of all these groups of phenomena with one another, the bearing of psychical science upon the physical sciences, and the answer the former may be found to give to questions concerning human personality and immortality, will be discussed at this Congress.

The Executive Committee is composed mainly

of residents of Chicago, who can conveniently attend the meetings which will be held from now until the opening of the Congress in May, 1893. The chairman of the Committee is Col. John C. Bundy, editor of the *Religio-Philosophical Journal*, which has long been fully committed to the scientific method in dealing with the facts and theories of spiritualism, and in denouncing and punishing every kind of fraud or folly to be found under cover of that name. Others are Lyman J. Gage, President of the First National Bank of Chicago; Ernest E. Crepin, H. W. Thomas, D.D., A. Reeves Jackson, M.D., J. H. McVicker, D. Harry Hammer, and D. H. Lambeson. It may be added that the World's Congress Auxiliary has been organized with the approval and support of the Exposition authorities, to have general charge of the series of Congresses of which the Psychical Science Congress is one; and that the directory of the Exposition will provide ample audience rooms. Though the announcement has been out less than a month, the Committee are already in very extensive correspondence, and the responses thus far received are almost unanimous in encouragement and support of the project.—Very truly yours,

ELLIOTT COUES, Vice-Chairman.

CHICAGO, April 5, 1892.

PHILOSOPHY IN AMERICAN COLLEGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The complaint of Prof. Scripture, in your issue of March 31, concerning the backwardness of American colleges and universities in respect to psychology might be extended so as to include all the philosophical sciences. The other day I asked a recent graduate of a Western college what text-book in ethics he had studied. He replied that he couldn't remember the author's name, but he knew the work was old, for, on account of the expiration of the copyright, he had been able to buy his copy very cheaply!

But merely cursing our shortcomings will not help us to reform. We should rather seek the causes of what we deplore, and also consider their relation to the existing forces of progress. The chief cause, apart from the poverty of American colleges, is their original design, which, hardened into unquestioned tradition, has become a fetter upon development. In the first place, most of them were intended for training and instruction, not investigation, and as a consequence their equipment and habits are ill adapted to the demands of the present. Secondly, the predominant interest in their establishment and maintenance has been religious, and because philosophy is more intimately connected with religious beliefs than any other college study, it more than any other has been made ancillary to practical ends. The recitation in "mental philosophy" was formerly supposed to have its primary value in moulding the character of students. The natural result was the stamping as orthodox of certain philosophical dogmas, oftenest those of Sir W. Hamilton and his followers, which were found adapted to this practical end. It followed that the work of the teacher consisted neither in investigating nor in stimulating investigation, but in securing firm assent to what was supposed to be the foundation of a good life. Add to this the traditional notion that the chair of "mental and moral philosophy" is a natural appendage of the office of president, and that the chief qualifications for this office have been clerical ordination and financial and executive ability, and

we have the most complete conditions imaginable for perpetuating the dreary fudge that has been handed down under the name of philosophy. The present tendency to select laymen as college presidents, and the creditable activity of a few departments of philosophy in leading institutions, are hopeful signs, but the notion lingers even yet that the qualifications needful for teaching philosophy are not parallel with those for teaching other branches. Surprise is still expressed when young men receive appointments to this department, as though in philosophy gray hairs or corpulence, rather than specialized knowledge, were the needful qualifications.

The path of progress leads through the emancipation of intellect from these artificial limitations. This does not imply that no connection is to be recognized between philosophy and practical ethics, nor that anything and everything may properly be taught. Just as none of our universities would employ as professor of political science any one known to be radically opposed to the political institutions of the United States, so denominational universities may consistently discriminate between men when they select a professor of philosophy—one may choose the sort of trees one will plant in one's garden; but we ought to insist that whatever calls itself a tree should have life and growth, and not be what one sometimes sees in the courts of German houses, a mere wall painted to represent a grove and yielding only imaginary coolness and shade. No interest of religion is subserved by cherishing the illusion either that a theologian is *eo facto* a philosopher, or that the simulation of thought can ever be as good as thought itself.

Among the forces of progress the new psychology occupies a prominent place. But its advocates may do well to note the conditions under which it is likely to be of greatest service. Prof. Scripture, in the before-mentioned communication, speaks of a certain work as "a tirade against the employment of scientific methods in psychology," and also as having been written during an attack of "materialism-madness." It is scarcely credible that the writer meant what these two statements seem to imply, namely, that, in order to be scientific, psychology must be materialistic. As a believer in the new methods in psychology, I am sorry to see one of their advocates even appear to confuse them with any metaphysical hypothesis, especially the one most likely to hinder their introduction into American colleges and universities. In order to prevent the possible notion that physiological psychology is a disguised materialism, it might be well to emphasize the fact that none of the three world-renowned American specialists in this branch, President Hall and Profs. James and Ladd, is a materialist. This should not, of course, be proposed as an argument for anything, but a mere statement of the fact might disarm the prejudice sure to arise if friends of the new psychology should in its name arrogantly denounce anti-materialistic treatises.

Furthermore, there is need of a frank admission of what Profs. James and Bowne hold in common, that neither physiological nor metaphysical psychology renders the other superfluous. The relation between the two is essentially the same as that between any other natural science and metaphysics. The trouble with psychology, as it is most often taught, is not that it is metaphysical, but that it is neither respectable metaphysics nor decent science.

Finally, the value of a fruitful subject-matter should not be clouded by a fight over names. But this is precisely what happens whenever

physiological or cerebral psychology claims a monopoly of the terms *psychology* and (as applied to this realm) *science*. Eliminate the dispute about names, for instance, and what would be left of the contention between Profs. Ladd and James? Above all, conceit, and an overbearing attitude towards those who cultivate equally real fields, are not likely to conduce to progress. True science is modest, even in her triumphs.—Respectfully,

GEORGE A. COE.

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY, April 4, 1892.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH LITERATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent article on the teaching of literature, in the April number of the *Educational Review*, Mr. Brander Matthews writes as follows:

"As yet no American college—so far as I know, at least—has frankly divided this professorship [of English literature and language] and established two chairs, one of English language, and the other of English literature. Perhaps Columbia College has shown the fullest understanding of the exigencies of the situation, and she has not only a professor of the English language and literature, but also a professor of rhetoric, a professor of Literature, and an instructor in Anglo-Saxon."

The saving clause, "so far as I know," might at first thought be regarded as sufficient to shield the writer from the charge of having accidentally overlooked some of the smaller American colleges. But in reality this saving clause is intended to imply that Mr. Brander Matthews has taken some pains to examine the teaching of English in the larger institutions at least, and that he has not discovered any college taking the high stand of our metropolitan cousin. For the benefit, however, of those who may still think that Mr. Matthews, in his sweep from Cape Cod to New Jersey, has taken in the whole country, I should like to call your attention to a few facts.

The Johns Hopkins University has for years separated the teaching of literature and language, and the separation is distinctly recognized in the titles of the two chairs. The University of Michigan, the largest university on this continent, has also gone beyond Columbia in a complete separation of English literature from philology on the one hand and from rhetoric on the other, the three classes of work being in the hands of a full professor, two assistant professors, and a corps of instructors. For two years, also, Cornell University has had both a full professor of English literature, and another full professor with assistants in charge of rhetoric and English philology, showing in this case also a complete separation of the literary from the language study. This last example has been followed more recently by the Leland Stanford Junior University, in the appointment of Dr. Ewald Flügel, announced in the same number of the *Review*.

But it is not strange, perhaps, that the article in question should be somewhat behind the times, since at the very beginning, in reviewing the recent book of Mr. J. Churton Collins, Mr. Brander Matthews expresses "surprise" at the state of English teaching in England. And yet any one acquainted with the literature of the subject knows that the controversy has been going on in England for more than five years, and that one of the articles republished in the book of Mr. Collins appeared in the *Quarterly Review* for January, 1887.

Notwithstanding these criticisms, any article which helps to place the teaching of English in

a proper light before the public will be of service, and there can be no question that the article in the *Educational Review* is one of these.

OLIVER FARRAR EMERSON.

ITHACA, N. Y.

EDITH WALFORD AND HER WORKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have only to-day had my attention called to the *Nation* of February 25, containing Mr. Kirk's letter and your rejoinder. I did not see the previous *Nation* containing the criticism referred to.

I am the E. (Edith) Walford who made the translation of the 'Story of the Chevalier Bayard,' from the French of M. de Berville. The book was the first of the 'Bayard Series,' edited for Sampson Low, Son & Marston (as the firm then was) by the late Hain Friswell. It was quite by an oversight that E. Walford instead of Edith Walford appears upon the title-page. I remember Mr. Edward Walford calling upon me at Mr. Friswell's house in Great Russell Street, and suggesting that in future it would be more convenient to have my full name attached to my work, as he was receiving so many congratulations that were intended for me.

I also compiled the 'Table-Talk and Opinions of Napoleon Buonaparte,' going conscientiously through every book on the subject in the Library of the British Museum. My name, I see, does not appear at all on the title-page—if for any editorial or publisher's reason, I did not hear of it. But in the 'Words of Wellington,' the next volume of the Bayard Series which I compiled, my name is on the title-page ('Compiled by Edith Walford'), and in the editor's preface it is referred to as follows: "Very little need be said of this companion to the 'Table-Talk of Napoleon.' The same compiler has carried out the suggestion of the editor," etc.

I am quite conscious of being a very obscure author, but I am sure you will not consider me unduly egotistical in wishing to lay claim to my own performances.

I am, dear sir, Yours faithfully,
EDITH WALFORD BLUMER.

SIERRA MADRE, LOS ANGELES CO., CAL.,
April 2, 1892.

NON SEQUITUR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Evening Post* of March 30 has an unsigned letter from Boston, relating to the report of a Joint Special Committee of the Legislature upon the State commissions. It contains a conclusion against which I desire to protest:

"It is to be noticed, as the first essential feature of the report, that the system of government by commissions has the unanimous approval of the Committee. This is all-important—in the first place, because it will settle for this generation, doubtless, all of the criticism of the existence of commissions as desirable features of our State Government, and again because it will now turn attention to the improvement of the system rather than its abolition, and it will be likely to lead other States to do what is being done here with such success in Massachusetts."

One assertion being, perhaps, as good as another, I say that, so far from this, it is only drawing into more definite shape that conflict between the Executive and the Legislature which is bound to come, and waits only for an executive head who has the courage to appeal directly to the people on behalf of his office

against the usurpations and abuse of power by the Legislature.

Gov. Russell has in two annual messages to the Legislature protested against the government of the State by commissions, and hinted pretty strongly at the propriety of abolishing them and intrusting their work to the Executive as the proper agent. He has also, on two or three occasions, got into conflict with different commissions, and been prevented from changing the members by an exertion of purely party strength on the part of the Council. Yet in the order of the Legislature appointing this Committee, and printed in the report, no allusion whatever is made to the Governor or his opinions, while in the body of the report itself the Governor is as completely ignored as if he did not exist. The Committee would probably say that the Governor should appear and present his views; but that Gov. Russell very properly refused to do. It is beneath the dignity of the chief magistrate to appear as a suppliant before a hostile committee of a hostile body which is itself only a branch of the government of which he is another branch. So that it comes to this, that seven men, representing less than a thirty-fifth part of the State, can of their own motion, and on a wholly one-sided statement of the case, suppress, at least for the present, all discussion of a subject declared by the head of the Executive to be of the highest importance, and while that head has no opportunity of being heard—at all events, so long as adherence to routine forbids him to appeal directly to the people.

An analysis of the report would furnish, if space allowed, a most fruitful subject. But it may be said in general that it breathes in every line the corporate spirit of the Legislature; its jealousy of the Executive, and desire to fetter him in every possible way; its equal jealousy of personal prominence of any kind—all the members wanting to be captains and none privates; and its indifference to the character both of administration and legislation as compared with the indulgence of this ruling passion.

It seems strange that some Governor does not see the splendid reputation that awaits the man who can induce the people to join with him in raising his office to its proper authority, and so bringing some order out of the present chaos. The fact is that as, by the Darwinian theory, organs which are unused for generations lose their vigor and proper form, so the breed of Governors has become divided between those who are content to accept positions of honest insignificance, and those who are eager to use that insignificance, from its very absence of personal responsibility, as a cloak for the darkest and most extensive corruption and intrigue.

G. B.

Boston, April 9, 1892.

A MYSTERY OF THE BALLOT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In looking over the pages of the *Historical Magazine*, I noticed an article copied from the *Boston Advertiser* for some date about A. D. 1860, calling attention to a matter which has often puzzled those who have counted ballots. It is this: when several persons ballot honestly to choose several persons on one ballot, how is it that more than the necessary number receive a majority of ballots? For example: if five men each vote for three candidates, requiring thus three votes to elect, why is it that more than three of them get three votes? In dealing with larger figures, the number of successful candidates may be so

many as to almost double the list. I have known some such instances, and have often heard the statement that the result was impossible and showed evident fraud. After studying the example given in the article quoted, I believe that I discern the principle, a very simple one, but I have never happened to see it stated. I will therefore do so, believing that many persons share my ignorance and will be glad to see an explanation.

The rule seems to be this: multiply the number of officers to be chosen by the number of votes, and divide the result by the number required for an election; the quotient will be the number of persons who can be elected, and the remainder will represent unnecessary or cumulative votes, which may be discarded.

Thus, if five voters each vote for three candidates, a total of fifteen votes is cast; which, divided by three, the number necessary for a choice, gives five candidates receiving a majority vote.

Example:

A	votes for candidates	1, 2, 3.
B	"	"
C	"	"
D	"	"
E	"	"

The individual ballot might be varied considerably, always resulting, however, in a majority vote for five candidates. In fact, as the majority is always a little more than one-half the number of voters, the quotient in the rule must always be at least one less than double the number of candidates; but the greater the number of voters and candidates, the less the discrepancy will be. In fact, the true answer to the problem seems to be this: the number of candidates receiving a majority may always amount to twice the number voted for on one ballot, less one invariably, and also less a few more, according to the results of the rule. But I think it will surprise most persons to find that if 100 persons ballot for 30 candidates, 58 could receive a majority vote, or 51 votes apiece; though a little explanation makes it self-evident.

It seems that the Legislature of Massachusetts had made provision for this point. In the Revised Statutes of 1836, chapter 4, section 13, it was provided that

"if, at any election, a greater number of candidates than the number to be elected shall severally receive a majority of the whole number of ballots, a number equal to the number to be elected, of such as have the greatest excess over such majority, shall be deemed and declared to be elected; but if the whole number to be elected cannot thus be completed, by reason of any two or more of such candidates having received an equal number of ballots, the candidates having such equal number shall be deemed not to be elected."

This was during the period when an absolute majority was necessary to a choice; but in 1855 the plurality law was established by Amendment No. 14. The statute was then altered (see Gen. Stat., chap. 7, §14, and Pub. Stat. chap. 7, §25), providing that in all elections of civil officers by the people, "the person or persons having the highest number of votes shall be deemed and declared elected, but no persons receiving the same number of votes shall be deemed to be elected, if thereby a greater number would be elected than required by law."

This, of course, did away with the old trouble of having too many candidates receive a majority vote, as that feature was not essential. It is confined, however, to popular elections, and the case still arises in representative bodies, city councils, societies, and others where the majority rule remains.

I trust, therefore, this little explanation will not be deemed superfluous.

W. H. WHITMORE.

Boston, March 17, 1892.

Notes.

ROBERTS BROS. have in preparation a wholly new edition of Jane Austen's novels, limited to 1,000 copies in eleven 16mo volumes, and to 250 copies in octavo size. Each volume will have a frontispiece design by E. Garrett, and the type will be clear.

A History of the United States for the special use of schools, from the pen of Mr. John Fiske, is to be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A social study of American society, by Hamilton Aidé, has been given the title of 'A Voyage of Discovery,' and will soon be brought out by the Harpers.

Macmillan & Co. promise a new edition of Mr. William Winter's 'Shakspeare's England,' and of Edgerton Castle's 'Schools and Masters of Fence.' The latter work, hitherto an expensive quarto, is to be accommodated to the Bohn Library.

Cassell announces 'In a Steamer Chair, and other Shipboard Stories,' by Luke Sharp (Robert Barr).

Charles L. Webster & Co. will soon have ready a collection of the poems of William Sharp, entitled 'Flower of the Vine: Romantic Ballads, and Sospiri di Roma.'

Dr. William Lyon Phelps of Harvard University has nearly completed a book on 'The Beginnings of the English Romantic Movement.' It is a study of the germs of Romanticism in England from 1725 to 1765. The book will probably be published in the fall.

Mrs. Elizabeth E. Evans has made an exhaustive study of the Kaspar Hauser literature, new and old, and her just finished narrative is on the eve of publication.

We learn from a late *Academy* that T. Fisher Unwin will shortly publish a book of reminiscences by George Jacob Holyoake, 'Sixty Years of an Agitator's Life'; that an Australasian Dictionary of Biography, by Philip Mennell, will be published by Hutchinson & Co.; and that Netherton & Worth have issued Vol. I, A to H, of a Modern English Biography, by Frederic Boase, that will contain concise memoirs of nearly 8,000 public characters who have died since 1850.

Little was known until very recently of the private library of the Borghese family at Rome. It is therefore a surprise to scholars both in and out of Italy to learn—since the culmination of the financial difficulties which have overtaken the princely house—that the Borghese palace contained not only the noted picture-gallery, but an immense book-collection, much larger and, in some respects, of even greater interest than the well-known libraries of the Barberini, Chigi, and other old Roman families. The collection is a miscellaneous one, but some specialties—among them music—are very fully represented. Of course, as might naturally be expected, the library abounds in incunabula, other book rarities, and rich bindings. We understand that a limited number of catalogues of the collection will be placed as soon as possible in the hands of a New York firm of booksellers.

In the Cantonal Library of Aarau, Switzerland, the librarian has just discovered a copy of the first edition of Hans Holbein's 'Bilder des Todes,' published at Lyons in 1538, and

containing forty-one woodcuts. Bound up in the same volume are also forty-six woodcuts by the same artist, illustrative of the Old Testament.

A complete *catalogue raisonné* of Parisian journals and periodicals, with date of establishment, name of publisher, price, etc., has been issued by Albert Schultz (Paris, 1892). It is the first full list of such works, analytically and systematically arranged, that has ever been printed. We may add that, during the year 1891, there were started in Paris 831 newspapers and reviews, of which, however, the greater part died of inanition before the end of the year.

'Friedrich der Grosse in seinen Aussprüchen über Religion, Erziehung und Schule,' by E. Schroeder (Berlin: Rentzel, 1892), is a timely publication that might be profitably perused by William II. Frederick the Great did not tell his subjects that if they disliked his politics, they could shake off the dust of their fatherland from their feet, but believed that "a ruler should so govern that people would want to come into the country instead of getting out of it." It was this policy that made Prussia a land of refuge for French Huguenots and Salzburg Protestants, and, by adding to her population a host of earnest, frugal, and skilful mechanics and thrifty husbandmen, contributed largely to her industrial wealth and prosperity and her political greatness. It has been the pursuit of this policy, in short, that rendered it possible for the dynasty of Hohenzollern to become the imperial house of Germany. The extracts in this anthology are taken from original editions and chronologically arranged.

Soule's useful and standard 'Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous or Parallel Expressions' comes to us in a new edition revised and enlarged by Dr. George H. Howison of the University of California (Philadelphia: Lippincott). This work has been before the public for fully twenty years, and enjoys a deserved reputation for both fulness of matter and ease of reference. The revision has been mainly confined to discriminating further between the various senses of leading words, and to increasing the number of parallel expressions, enlarging the bulk by about one-third. The Dictionary easily stands at the head of books of its class.

The continued popularity of the poet Calverley is attested by the issue of third editions of his 'Literary Remains,' with a memoir by Sir Walter J. Sendall, and of his translation of Theocritus (London: Geo. Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan). The latter of these is certainly the most interesting of the versions of the Idylls, owing partly to the various metres and partly to the quality of the English into which they are rendered. The difficulties that beset translation could hardly be more strikingly illustrated than by comparison of this volume with Andrew Lang's richer and more picturesque version; the original style has suffered a change in both, and which of the two English forms has most verisimilitude is a matter on which scholars and poets might easily disagree, according as the Elizabethan affectation or the late Georgian manner appeals most to their taste. Calverley's own standards may be found in his two or three essays on the subject of translation, which are as admirable as any, to be found in his 'Remains'; but of them, and of the verses included in that collection, and in particular the renderings of Latin hymns, there is no occasion to speak. We cannot refrain, however, from once more giving a word of praise to this de-

lightful memoir of his life, and from expressing admiration for the fine fibre and quality of the man.

Two new volumes have been added to the collection of Peacock's novels (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan), edited by Dr. Garnett, of the previous issues of which we have made mention. 'Maid Marian' is most interesting because of its literary coincidence with 'Ivanhoe,' of which it was independent, but with which, nevertheless, it has points of contact, of which the most is made in Peacock's favor by the editor. 'The Misfortunes of Elphin' also goes back into the past of English fable for its subject, and fortunately its field has been less traversed in literature, so that it has a unique quality and an originality that verges on being factitious. In both these volumes the peculiarities of Peacock's genius find admirable play, and they help greatly in giving it variety of expression.

'War Papers and Personal Reminiscences, 1861-65,' read before the Missouri Commandery of the Loyal Legion, and published by the Commandery, is a substantial accession to the list of kindred publications. The present volume contains twenty-four papers, of which three are eulogies and one or two of the longer ones are historical criticisms. The rest belong to the class of personal reminiscences which give chief value to the publications of military societies. They, of course, vary greatly in value and interest, some being of a very high order, while others are of trifling importance. The proof-reading seems to have been very imperfectly done, and some of the papers show the need of editorial revision. As a whole, the volume will be a useful addition to the historical material of the civil war, but might easily have been made more so. Its binding is uniform with those of the Ohio and New York volumes already published.

'The Realm of Nature: An Outline of Physiography,' by H. R. Mill of Edinburgh, is published in this country by the Scribners as one of their University Extension Manuals. It is an excellent book—clear, comprehensive, and remarkably accurate considering its scope. The standard errors that one has come to expect in one text-book after another are successfully avoided, and this indicates high and scholarly attainments on the part of the author, and a broad acquaintance with modern sources of scientific statements. The book gives an account of matter and energy, of the earth as a planet and its relations to the sun; of its atmosphere, oceans, and lands; of the geological record, of the continents, and of life. There is an appendix on the derivation of scientific terms, and an index. The charts are neatly prepared, and exhibit a large variety of facts of distribution. Among the novelties is a chart of equidistant coastal lines, illustrating the accessibility of Europe from the sea, while central Asia is so remote. Although the knowledge gained by a university extension course in using such a book as this is necessarily fragmentary, and unlike that resulting from the more thorough courses given at universities on the various subjects here included, still one who reaches a good understanding of the book may regard himself as having made a real advance in his education towards an appreciation of nature. At the close of the preface, it is stated that Prof. Shaler of Harvard has "supplied occasional illustrations from the point of view of the American physiographer"; but the publishers seem to have set narrow limits to these additions. The book is essentially British, the rest of the world being treated only in a general way. The enthusiastic

teacher of country classes in Wisconsin, for example, where university extension is well fathered, can hardly expect his scholars to enjoy the presence of special temperature and rainfall charts of the British Isles in the absence of similar special charts for our own country. The plan and general execution of the book is so good, and even in its present form its value is so great, that we hope the publishers will soon be able to bring out a truly Americanized edition.

The subdivision of what older scholars used to learn as British America into various provinces and territories under the expanded general name of Canada, makes a general account of that vast country welcome. A 'Geography of the Dominion of Canada and Newfoundland' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) has been prepared by the Rev. W. P. Greswell, under the auspices of the Royal Colonial Institute, and gives a compact account of our neighbor on the north. The maps are clear and sufficient for a small book; the chapters are succinctly written, dwelling briefly on the most characteristic features of the region. The total population is placed above 5,000,000, broadly distributed, unlike that of Australia, where concentration in cities is excessive. The weaker side of the work comes from its author not having personal acquaintance with his subject, and from his unscientific training that allows the acceptance of questionable statements, such as those from Maury about ocean currents (p. 82); but the book is a useful addition to our libraries.

'The Story of the Hills,' by the Rev. H. N. Hutchinson (Macmillan), is of about the same quality as its predecessor by the same author, the 'Autobiography of the Earth,' of which we could give no very favorable judgment some months ago. The newer book tells briefly of the uses of mountains, of sunshine and storm, and of plants and animals in the mountains. How mountains were made is discussed in chapters on the accumulation of their materials, on their subsequent deformation, and on their denudation. There are several good reproductions from photographs, some of which are by Donkin. The book will interest and inform its readers, and yet, in looking it over, we have a sense of the recent acquisition of his knowledge by the author. Of course, all books must have errors, but it is rather late now to find the Föhn wind ascribed to a source in the Sahara; and it is a regret to see yet again a repetition of the mistaken belief that all the Pennsylvanian mountains are synclines, and that in time the Jura Mountains must come to the same inversion between topography and structure.

The second part of Ratzel's 'Anthropographie' (Stuttgart: Engelhorn) follows nine years after the first. It is a volume of nearly 800 pages of serious, suggestive reading, which will stand well by the thoughtful teacher who wishes to comment on his texts either in history or geography. The essays on thinly populated districts, on the dwindling of low peoples, on the location of cities and towns, and on geographical names, are particularly interesting. The various chapters are closed by notes and references, giving numerous indications for the specialist for further study.

The report of the United States National Museum for 1889 is a bulky volume of more than 900 pages. Besides the special reports of Prof. Goode and his assistant curators, it contains a number of articles of more general interest—among others, the Professor's essay on the museums of the future; William J. Thomson's 111 pages, 48 plates, and 18 figures on

Easter Island, its inhabitants and peculiar history; Prof. O. T. Mason's account of aboriginal methods of dressing skins, 36 pages and 32 plates; and an interesting presentation of the evolution of the American rail and track, 51 pages and 137 illustrations. In this last no attention is given the wrought-iron chair that was such an important item in Western railroad construction about 1855, yet an exhibit is not complete without it. The chair to which we refer was made of a flat piece of iron, say eight inches square and half an inch in thickness, with a hole punched for a spike near each corner at each side of the end of each of the rails forming the joint, and with two or three inches of the middle of the outer side and of the inner turned up and back against the sides of the two rails so as to grasp their bases. This chair rested on joint ties, usually "taken out of wind" by the adzemen; it was displaced by cast-iron chairs and fish-plates and bolts at a later date.

Two more sheets have appeared of Vogel's large-scale map of the German Empire (Gotha: Perthes; New York: B. Westermann & Co.): one to which Emden on the Frisian coast gives its name, and one Frankfort on the Main, though the latter sheet embraces Gotha, Erfurt, and Coburg on the extreme east. The execution is beautiful.

Mr. Gardner M. Jones of the Salem (Mass.) Public Library has made and printed a "Rough Subject Index" to the Proceedings, Bulletin, and Historical Collections of the Essex Institute of that city (six, twenty-two, and twenty-seven volumes respectively). Completeness has not been aimed at, but the more important articles have been selected. The service was worth performing, and Mr. Jones is entitled to the thanks of historical students.

The *Critic*, reviewing Maitland's 'American Slang Dictionary,' says: "Under D should be inserted the popular colloquialism *dog gone* (*dog go on it?*). The popular colloquialism is *dog gone it*, and we have always supposed that it was (like *darn it* and *dern it* for *damn it*) a mild form of swearing, being a euphemistic corruption of *God damn it*, made by transposing the initials *g* and *d* and twisting the sound a little—a phrase intended to suggest the more robust oath without being obnoxious to serious reproof.

On Feb. 22 Prof. Percy Gardner read before the Hellenic Society a paper on "The Chariot Group of the Mausoleum," contending with Stark and Wolters that the two figures of Mausolus and Artemisia should not be connected with the chariot at all. These two statues were of a workmanship manifestly superior to that exhibited in the chariot and horses. These last being by Pythis, the two figures must be attributed to one of the other artists, Scopas, Bryaxis, Timotheus, and Leochares, known to have worked upon the sculptures of the monument. Given the well-established proportion between the heights of men and horses upon all Greek monuments, a comparison of the stature of the figures with that of the horses made it impossible to suppose that they belonged to the "Chariot Group." The chariot stood empty on the summit of the monument, while the figures of Mausolus and Artemisia were placed somewhere inside the building, as befitted their superior style of sculpture. Dr. A. S. Murray and Mr. Arthur Smith of the British Museum defended the theory that the two figures belonged to the chariot, and Dr. Murray explained that, although the contemplated regrouping of the Mausoleum figures would suggest the grouping of them with the chariot, nothing would be so

placed as to force this arrangement upon the eye.

Prof. Calvin Thomas writes to us from Ann Arbor:

"A paragraph in your critique of Walt Whitman begins: 'Whitman can never be classed, as Spinoza was by Schleiermacher, among "God-intoxicated men."' Is this only an inadvertence, or has your critic authority for ascribing to Schleiermacher a phrase that is commonly credited to Friedrich von Hardenberg (Novalis)? In the Tieck-Schlegel edition of Novalis's Works, volume ii., page 261, is to be found, among a mass of 'fragments,' the sentence, 'Spinoza ist ein Gott-trunkener Mensch.'"

—The very least of amateur astronomers need never to despair because of the lack of costly apparatus, in the face of events like two that have recently taken place. It is now commonly known that the *stella nova* in Auriga which has been absorbing the attention of many observatories for the past seven or eight weeks, was first seen by a Scottish amateur, who modestly notified the Astronomer Royal for Scotland by an anonymous post-card. He turns out to have been Thomas D. Anderson, Esq., of Edinburgh, who is now encouraged to make a further communication regarding his early observations of the star, telling how his doubts as to the character of the strange body were gradually removed. To this he adds: "You might also allow me to state that my case is one that can afford encouragement to even the humblest of amateurs. My knowledge of the technicalities of astronomy is, unfortunately, of the meagrest description; and all the means at my disposal on the morning of the 31st of January, when I made sure that a strange body was present in the sky, were Klein's 'Star Atlas' and a small pocket telescope which magnifies ten times." The very great service to science arising from simple but faithful observation of this type is rarely more conspicuously shown. Without it, months would doubtless have elapsed before the star would have been discovered in the necessarily slow, but certain, process of comparison of the photographs of the sky taken at frequent intervals at Harvard College Observatory. By that time this star would most likely have become too faint for satisfactory research upon its peculiar physical constitution. As it is, the beautiful photographs of its spectrum which have now been obtained at Harvard and elsewhere reveal a multitude of bright lines, which indicate a very complex constitution, quite unlike that of the ordinary variable star. Notwithstanding the fact that all the lines in the spectrum of the *nova* are broad, there is no falling off in intensity at the edges, as in the case of the hydrogen lines in such a star as Sirius. It is early yet to announce any definitive result from the examination of the spectra, but the suggestion seems likely that there may have been a celestial collision, perhaps of two large bodies, but perhaps only of two meteor-swarms. The latter, if it be finally proved, will afford a much-needed confirmation of the meteoritic hypothesis—a confirmation which Mr. Lockyer is by no means slow to predict. The unique service rendered by the Harvard chart-plates is worthy of note: this series began as long ago as November 3, 1885, and it was but a short task to examine the entire collection covering the constellation of Auriga. This proved at once, and beyond a doubt, that the new star was invisible up to December 1, 1891, that it was quite bright on the 10th, increased in brilliancy for the next ten days, and subsequently slowly faded away for a month or more, until the date of discovery by Mr.

Anderson, when it had already become a star of inconspicuous magnitude.

—A second event is the issue from the press (Longmans) within the last few days of Dr. Otto Boeddicker's superb 'Atlas of the Milky Way,' made at Lord Rosse's famous observatory at Birr Castle, Ireland, during the past five years, and wholly without telescopic aid. Stump and lead pencil and a keen eye have been the chief instruments in producing this really splendid pictorial representation of the Galaxy. It gives the aspect of these star-strewn regions of the northern sky as they appear to the naked eye (a little better than the normal) on the best and clearest of moonless nights. No pains have been spared to insure the highest accuracy without optical assistance; still, Dr. Boeddicker desires his work to be regarded as a first approximation only, and as merely the first step necessary towards a knowledge of the structure of the sidereal universe. His specific point is this: the admirable photographs that have recently been taken of parts of the Milky Way in no sense supersede careful hand-drawing of what is seen by the naked eye. Obviously the photograph gives a section of the Galaxy lying much beyond what we see without optical means, since it resolves into stars what to the naked eye appears as unresolved nebulosity. Thus the hope seems to be justified that by superimposing the drawing on the photograph some knowledge may be obtained of the structure of the Galaxy in the line of sight. To this end, Dr. Boeddicker has already in hand the systematic photography of the Milky Way at Parsons-town—a work whose conclusion can be reached only at the termination of a period of some years. It will be a misfortune if the same observer is unable to continue this research on a like system through the constellations of the southern hemisphere.

—A contribution to vol. xi. of the *Taalstudie* bears emphatic witness to the interest which is now taken, beyond the limits of English-speaking peoples, in what is destined, beyond question, to become the leading speech of the earth. We refer to an article by Mr. C. Stoffel of Nijmegen, occupying no fewer than thirty-eight ample pages, entitled, "Annotated Specimens of 'Arry-ese': a Study in Vulgar English." This essay, it should be remembered, in view of later kindred elucidations, is dated 1889. Mr. Punch's 'Arry is, of course, the eponymus of the uncouth dialect with which it is concerned. The enthusiastic expositor of this jargon, who writes our language almost faultlessly, has, certainly, handled his subject much as if he were a born Englishman. That, being a foreigner, he should, here and there, be open to correction, was, however, perhaps inevitable. If we do not mistake him, he is unaware that *along of*, 'owing to,' *flam*, 'flush,' 'abounding,' *hum*, 'humbug,' *optics*, 'eyes,' *tip-top*, *topping*, and *top-sawyer* have long been established, and that some of them are even now reputable. Of good age, too, are expressions like *fit to drop*, as could be evidenced out of De Foe; and, further, since they are employed, though only in a light style, by such authors as Bentham, Thackeray, Cardinal Newman, Mr. T. Hughes, and Sir George W. Dasent, they have not, in recent times, wholly lost caste. In the same category as this *fit* is *lingo*, wrongly explained as meaning, with "the lower orders," 'slang.' All other "orders" use it, except in grave discourse, but usually in a contemptuous sense, for 'language' and 'diction.' Far from modern, likewise, is *to go to pot*. Dr. Bentley,

for instance, wrote, referring to the Letters of Phalaris, "For, if the Agrigentines had met with them, they had certainly *gone to pot*," which Mr. Stoffel's fellow-countryman, the learned Van Lennep, amusingly misrendered, "Si enim eas invenissent Agrigentini, sine dubio *tergendis natibus inseruissent*."

—Nor can we at all agree with the essayist in considering the colloquialism 'em, 'them,' or just about, 'pretty nearly,' left out in the cold, on the boil, on the mend, on the watch, prig (sb.), rollicking, sneak (sb.), and stiffish as the exclusive property of plebeians. And why should he object to *shunt* in its figurative acceptation? We find, in the *Saturday Review*, as far back as 1858, in vol. v., p. 261, "Practically, General Peel is not *shunted*, but shelved." Exception is also to be taken to the judgment that "a *trifle tedious*" is "decidedly slangy"; it being not a whit more so than "a *little tedious*." Such a mistake as that of defining *gills* by "cheeks" is very pardonable. And so is the characterization of the epithet in 'Arry's *blarney noosance*: "a mysterious term, reminding us of the equally mysterious 'gormed,' affected by Mr. Peggotty." With respect to certain local and low-class words and pronunciations which, like other writers abroad, he styles "Yankeeisms," Mr. Stoffel is occasionally at sea, as could be shown, if we had space for the showing. Moreover, it is still to be discovered, as by him, by linguistic speculators generally, in England and elsewhere, that we have come to possess distinct dialects, to some extent, and that, in scientific philology, *Yankeeism* and *Americanism* are, respectively, species and genus. In closing these strictures on the hazardous undertaking which we have cursorily criticised, it must be acknowledged that, in spite of them, it has, on the whole, been accomplished with very considerable success.

—The brain, the temperament, the will which made the great commander who suppressed the rebellion, are shown as never before in G. Kruell's latest masterpiece of wood-engraving, his portrait of Grant. It is really the President, in civilian dress, but as yet not overcome by the wiles of flatterers and intriguers, and so still essentially the soldier, simple of mind and invincible of purpose—the man at the height of his physical and mental powers. As a delineation of character, this likeness is as wonderful as its predecessors of the same class, the Lincoln and the Webster; and technically it ranks with either if we were not disposed to say of Mr. Kruell's work that his latest performance is his best. Here, as before, the artistic excellence overshadows the mechanical, and the result is portraiture in the grand manner, akin more to the brush than to the graver. The color scheme is very rich, and the background admirably devised. The handling of textures—flesh, hair, linen, and broadcloth—is perfection. But always one comes back to the "moral" of this face, conveyed in the firm-set mouth and inflexible nose, and eyes which did not flinch before the slaughter of the Wilderness. The correlation of these features has been thoroughly felt and most forcibly expressed. Mr. Kruell's brilliant success in this instance, as in that of his Lincoln and Darwin, has been reached by previous study and engraving of his subject from the same original, a much-prized photograph owned by Mr. Nast, and from other portraits from life. It must profoundly discourage any other artist in black and white ambitious to produce the final portrait of Grant. No connoisseur of wood-en-

graving can afford to overlook this example of the art in its highest advancement. With the public, it will make its way at sight. Mr. Kruell's address is East Orange, New Jersey; and the print may also be had of F. Keppel, 20 E. 16th St., N. Y.

—At a meeting of the Oxford Ancient History Society on Feb. 29, Mr. Haverfield, best known perhaps among scholars for his work upon Roman inscriptions in the Latin Corpus, gave some account of the work recently done upon the north wall of Chester. There was no doubt that its lower portion was of Roman construction. It had been built, perhaps, as late as the reign of Septimius Severus, with stones mainly taken from a burial-ground; hence the number of inscribed and, in some cases, sculptured tombstones which Mr. Haverfield's investigations have recently obtained. The task imposed upon the excavators was the laborious and costly one of discovering which stones were inscribed, and of substituting in the restored structure of the wall new stones of equal size. This has now been completely done, and the inscriptions obtained are mainly of interest as bearing upon the organization of the legionary forces kept by the Romans in Britain. One legion hitherto supposed to have been stationed at Carlisle is now shown to have occupied Chester. The style of the sculptures showed no traces of a local school of art like that found in similar cases in other parts of the Empire, notably on the Rhine. Mr. Haverfield exhibited a curious but rude representation of the death of Actæon, and a remarkably perfect recumbent figure from the tomb of a grand lady of the Roman colony at Chester. This very admirable piece of sculpture is the best thing of the kind which has been unearthed in England. The chairman, Prof. Pelham, remarked of a third piece of sculpture given among Mr. Haverfield's slides, that all such representations of a horseman running down a diminutive barbarian had been clearly traced back to their Greek original at Pergamum. He also spoke of the English study of Roman remains in Great Britain, saying that it was now to be hoped that something would be done by Oxford men to put these studies more nearly upon the high level attained by the French investigations of the Roman occupation of Gaul. He also referred to the efforts now being made in Germany to gain a systematic and complete knowledge of the great Roman wall. Similar investigations are now in progress on the line of the northern wall in Britain under the auspices of Mr. Nelson and the Glasgow Society of Antiquaries.

GOODYEAR'S GRAMMAR OF THE LOTUS.

The Grammar of the Lotus. A New History of Classic Ornament as a Development of Sun-worship, with Observations on the "Bronze Culture" of Prehistoric Europe, as derived from Egypt, based on the study of patterns. By William H. Goodyear. London: Sampson Low; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

THE credit of Egypt in the history of art has been singularly unstable. A generation ago she was held to be the fountain of all the arts; then came a time when her influence began to be denied at all points, and even the inspiration of the Greek Doric was refused her; and now, especially since the recent successes of the Egyptian Exploration Fund, her credit is up again. Mr. Goodyear's study of the lotus was first stimulated by the pottery found at Naukratis, and his identifications of the Egyptian

lotus with the forms of Greek Ionic architecture, and of other decorative forms, Greek and Assyrian, were first published in the *American Journal of Archaeology* and the *American Architect*, some five years ago. His present book, the outcome of later investigations, covers a much wider field, and, identifying the lotus as the chief emblem of Sun-worship, traces it through the early art of all the nations of the globe as the ruling artistic motive and dominating symbol.

"The lotus," Mr. Goodyear says, "was a fetish of immemorial antiquity, and has been worshipped in many countries, reaching from Japan to the Straits of Gibraltar." With abundant illustration from the monuments and texts, and from the works of other authors, he verifies its significance as the emblem of the sun, its more generally recognized symbolism of the generative force of nature, and its association with the solar disc, the sun gods, Ra, Horus, Osiris, and the rest, as with the animals that represent the attributes of the sun—the lion, bull, ram, hawk—and the sphinx, the gryphon, or other monsters. He follows it through the Phœnicians, Hittites, Chaldeans, and Assyrians to the Hindu, through Baal, Astarte, Mithra to Vishnu and Siva, and to the Greek Apollo and Aphrodite. Further, he maintains that the lotus and papyrus, which, as has hitherto been thought, divide between them the decorative design of Egypt, are one and the same; and not only this, but he really finds no other original motive, of plant or even geometric form, in all the field of ancient symbolic or decorative art of Egypt or any other country. So that the so-called papyrus, the palmette, anthemion, rosette, scroll, spiral, volute, guilloche, meander, fret, rope-pattern, swastika, chevron, zigzag, the ivy-leaf, trefoil, bud, cone, apple-seed, the Assyrian sacred tree, and the Buddhist trisula, even the water-leaf and egg-and-dart moulding, as well as the Ionic and Corinthian capitals, are each descended in direct line from the sacred lotus, and have no other ancestry; each is a symbol of sun-worship and of the generative force. Many of these identifications have been suggested by other authorities, and some have been accepted generally; but no one before Mr. Goodyear has ventured so wide a generalization; no one has thought of making the lotus the basis of all decorative forms. This bold thesis is maintained with great acuteness and range of evidence, and with an opulence of citation from other authorities, and especially from examples of the early art of all countries, that surprises the reader and at times almost takes his breath away.

It is impossible to do justice to Mr. Goodyear's argument by an abstract, because of its many ramifications and the great number of conclusions involved in it. It is a close application of the comparative method, deducing its points one by one by setting the details of ornament side by side according to similarity. So, for instance, the recurved petals of the lotus are shown to produce the Ionic flower, as Mr. Goodyear calls it, of the Egyptians, Phœnicians, and Assyrians; the flower begets the volute, the volute the scroll, the scroll the concentric rings. The addition of tangents to the rings produces the curvilinear meander, the meander the fret, the fret the swastika; and the argument is persuasive at every point. It is easy, however, in following out a series of deductions like this to forget the logic of probabilities—that the conclusion is weakened at each remove. It is not a chain which is as strong everywhere as its weakest link. The uncertainty is cumulative. We do not mean that

Mr. Goodyear's argument is flimsy—on the contrary, the reasoning is close and acute; the uncertainty is in the process, in which the final inference needs to be checked by other argument. The argument of the book is all in one direct line; but there are other considerations that are not to be overlooked. Among them are the extreme probability that different countries were working out apart their own habits of ornamentation, and the fact that there is a considerable number of forms so obvious and inevitable that it would be a wonder if they were not nearly universal. In point of fact, as we all know, certain ones are practically universal, and are reinvented every time an untaught person tries to invent ornament; others, such as the fret, meander, and rosette, we may fairly say, are found wherever a people have by practice developed a system of ornament. Most of these simple elements are found in the ornament of every savage tribe that has attained a little skill. In the ornament of Uxmal the lotus, volute, rosette, guilloche, fret, are as abundant as at Thebes or Amravati, and mingled with them a curious eye may detect not only the zig-zag and lozenge, but the English dog-tooth, the Pisan chequered square, and occasional letters from the English and Gothic alphabets.

This is an old argument, but is not weakened by repetition. Mr. Goodyear meets it squarely by assuming that Aztec, Peruvian, Zuni, Kahyle, and Pacific ornament are as much an Egyptian derivative as Assyrian or Phœnician, and are proof of prehistoric intercourse between these remote peoples and the shores of the Mediterranean. This contention is not new, but Mr. Goodyear is bold enough to maintain that the burden of proof is on the other side, and to say that it appears necessary for those who assert the independent origin of these details to prove that the Phœnicians, the peddlers of Egyptian civilization, were not in ancient America. The burden of proof seems to us to be on Mr. Goodyear's side, but we may stop to say that the presumption against the carrying on of a transatlantic commerce sufficient to communicate a civilization by ancient ships, without compasses and presumably dependent upon cars, outweighs, we think, any argument founded on the coincidences of forms so susceptible of independent invention as the details of common ornament. Some of the coincidences are certainly surprising, but life and history and invention and art are full of surprising coincidences. The argument proves too much. It amounts to the assertion that the art and the religion of all the world, and therefore almost necessarily the civilization, were the gift of a single people, transmitted in turn to every other, to the absolute denial of any other initiative or independent development. The only parallel to it, perhaps, is the conception of the literal descent of the whole human family from Adam and Eve.

The same singleness of argument is pushed too far, it seems to us, in tracing all ornament to the lotus. It implies that the Egyptian, having once accepted that plant as the symbol of his deity and luminary, and used it for ornament, never admitted any other, never associated with it a single line of his own fancy or from any of the myriad natural or geometric forms that were for ever under his eyes, but in the slow course of centuries developed all his great store of decorative forms little by little out of this single flower; that this resolute abstention was persisted in through thousands of years, not only by the Egyptians, but by Assyrians, Phœnicians, Babylonians, Cypriotes, Greeks, and all the nations through whom the

inheritance of Egyptian art is here tracked. All we know of the processes of artistic evolution makes this incredible. It would need the strongest evidence; and the evidence here collected does not seem sufficient. This is not the way art is developed, so far as we can see. It is not evolution, but the rigorous carrying out of a preconceived scheme, a thing which probably never happened in the growth of art, surely not in early art. So sure is Mr. Goodyear of his argument that he disposes of an Alexandrian text which calls the sceptre of the goddesses a papyrus, by supposing that the Egyptians themselves had mistaken their amulet form for a papyrus, though he proves it to be a lotus by fig. 21. We can forgive the Egyptians, who probably did not have fig. 21 to set them right. The Egyptians were, or became, a very conservative people, very observant of the conventions of their art and the religious tradition that maintained it. But they were also a very artistic people, with a decorative instinct which in its kind has not been surpassed. There was a time when their artistic conventions were forming, and then there must have been a wide play for this decorative instinct. We see in their ornament, for instance, a variety of campaniform flowers, of very distinct types, carefully discriminated. They had undoubtedly a great variety of such flowers before their eyes in nature—were, indeed, celebrated in antiquity for their culture and importation of flowers; and while they apparently gave the lotus preëminence, it is easier to believe that they took their decorative material where they found it than that they laboriously travestied their sacred symbol into such various and uncharacteristic forms as are ascribed to it. The ingenious juxtapositions here shown certainly bring out in series close resemblances which might be transitions, but so would any systematic grouping of natural flowers. The fact that in Egypt the North and South were hieroglyphically indicated by two plants that are commonly taken for lotus and papyrus, Mr. Goodyear brushes aside with little ceremony. In truth the smallness and summary rendering of the hieroglyphs makes identification uncertain, yet if any two plants are carefully discriminated in the representation, they can hardly both be lotuses. So in the case of the palmette and anthemion, whose derivation from half the rosette is not convincing to us; so with the rosette itself, which is here derived solely from the rather uninspiring ovary of the lotus, though there are many varieties of it in Egyptian art and innumerable prototypes in nature. He rightly calls attention to its prevalence in Egypt, and he objects to considering it a distinctly Assyrian motive; but the distinction remains that in Egyptian decoration, which is unrivalled except by that of the red Greek vases for density and the close adaptation of each form to its neighbors, the rosette is always subordinate, perhaps too much so for a lotus, and generally imbedded in a repeated ornament, while in Assyrian it is apt to stand apart and to be principal.

Of the many valuable things in Mr. Goodyear's book, none is more interesting than his identification of what he calls the Ionic form of the lotus, and its development into the Ionic capital. Other investigators (Ceccaldi, Dieulafoy) had hinted at isolated aspects of it; but he only has covered the whole range of the question, and followed its transformations through Egyptian, Phœnician, Assyrian, and Greek art. The derivation must, we think, be accepted and the Ionic form as well as the Doric be referred to an Egyptian ancestry, though both are cast out from their birthplace. It would

not be strange if the third classic order, the Corinthian, were ultimately traced, as some authorities have suggested, to the same country. Of the two forms of the lotus-volute which stand on equal footing in Egypt, the upright, derived directly from the flower, is the form which prevails in Phœnician art, but was neglected by the Greeks, while the horizontal, where the two volutes are united in a flat cushion, was the favorite of the Assyrians, and was developed into the regular Ionic capital. This choice of the Greeks, if it was a choice, seems to sustain, as does the apparent importation of the Ionic order from the Greek colonies in Asia Minor, the accepted theory that the capital was derived, if only secondarily, from the Assyrians, and not directly or through the Phœnicians from Egypt. The links are wanting that should connect the erect lotus volute with the Corinthian capital, though a sanguine person might point on the one hand to certain Assyrian bas-reliefs, and on the other to some Phœnician steles, one especially in the Museum at New York, which suggest not only the calyx at the base of the volutes, but the cauliculi above. It is difficult to believe that the Greek designers, with their keen decorative sense, would not have perceived, if the choice had been before them, that superior decorative fitness of the upright volute which is abundantly demonstrated by its after history. We doubt, by the way, whether the interesting Ionic capital which was found at Mount Chigri by Mr. Clarke in 1882, and has been called proto-Ionic, is to be regarded as a direct link in the development. It has the upright volutes divided by a palmette, and the abacus is missing; its form and its imperfect adaptation to the shaft suggest that it belonged rather to a detached votive column than to an order, and the fineness of the execution makes one suspicious of a very early date.

The theory that the lotus was a sun-symbol, and that it carried its symbolism into the art of many countries, is well sustained in the argument of the book, though it may well be that its procreative significance counted for most among people so given to phallic worship as the Phœnicians and the Hindus. Mr. Goodyear reverses the accepted course of Egyptian influence, and urges that it reached Assyria through Phœnicia rather than Phœnicia through Assyria. There is a good deal of force in his reasoning, yet there was another possible channel of communication in Chaldea, perhaps a more direct one. The recent finding of Babylonian tablets in Egypt, many of which, in the British Museum, are still undeciphered or unpublished, may have some light for this question.

But archæology is still in its childhood; its theories may be reversed many times before they settle into fixity. The 'Grammar of the Lotus' is a notable contribution to its literature, written with a tenacious grasp of its subject, with keenness of observation and clearness of statement. The success of the publishers is not in proportion to their effort, which exemplifies to our mind the worst fashions of modern book-making. The book is meant to be handsome; but it is clumsy and pretentious, heavy in the hand, awkward to read, and hard to consult. Most of its illustrations would be quite as clear and more agreeable at half the scale. The text contains matter for an octavo which the scholar would gladly welcome to a place on his shelves for which its bulk unfits it; but it is printed with the ostentation of a trade catalogue, with which its scholarship and the simple directness of its style are singularly out of keeping.

AN ENGLISHWOMAN IN PERSIA.

Journeys in Persia and Kurdistan. By Mrs. Bishop (Isabella L. Bird). G. P. Putnam's Sons. 2 vols. 8vo.

In these volumes, Mrs. Bishop, better known to the readers of her other popular books of travel as Miss Bird, has given an interesting account of her journeys through some of the unfrequented parts of Persia. The first eight of the "diary letters," of which the book is made up, describe the seven weeks of caravan travel from Bagdad, through Kirmanshah and Kum, to Teheran. Starting in the depths of an unusually severe winter, this journey of over 500 miles, through a mountainous country, was beset by hardships which would go far to content the "untraveled many," to whom the book is dedicated, with their own firesides. With the mercury often below zero, scarcity of fuel and incompetent service aggravated the suffering due to the wretched caravansaries on the route, and to the tedious progress of the laden mules through the snow.

After a few weeks of rest and sight-seeing at Teheran, Mrs. Bishop went south again to Isfahan, and from there started on her journey among the Bakhtiari nomads of Luristan. The Ilyats, or nomadic tribes, are an interesting class of the people of Persia, of whom they form more than a tenth part. They are scattered over the whole country in small tribes, and their wandering flocks and herds and their shaggy black tents make a striking contrast to the gardens and villages of the stationary population. In the north they are quiet and attract little attention, although the present dynasty of Persia sprang from the Khajjar nomads of the Elburtz mountains, and, in consequence, founded its capital, Teheran, far from the old caravan lines, but near its own strongholds. In southwestern Persia, however, the Bakhtiari and Feili Lurs, of the mountains of Luristan, have been a constant menace to the country, and are now held in only partial control by the Government, through hostages kept at Teheran, and by the characteristic policy of fomenting quarrels among their different chiefs. The Feili Lurs form one of the obstacles to the development of the new trade route from the Persian Gulf to Teheran. This road, starting from the head of navigation on the Karun River, passes through their country, and will need to be strongly guarded to be safe from their depredations.

Little was known about either tribe, as few travellers have ever been among them, and it shows great courage on Mrs. Bishop's part to have undertaken this part of her journey, and great tact and persistence to have accomplished it safely. She had obtained at Teheran letters from the Amin-es-Sultan, or Prime Minister, to the Ilkhani, the head chief of the Bakhtiari Lurs, and to their other Khans, commanding them to supply escorts and to provide for her safety. She had, as the leader of her party, a man, presumably a European, although he appears in the narrative only as the "Agha" or "Sahib," who possessed great presence of mind and ability. Yet she regarded rightly, as her main reliance, her medical knowledge and the ample supply of medicine which she carried. Whenever her tent was pitched, a crowd gathered clamoring for "feringee" medicine, and she spent much of her time in treating the sick and in giving away remedies.

Her reputation as an English "Hakim" preceded her, and had a marked effect in allaying suspicion and smoothing over difficulties. Nevertheless, she had many serious adventures. She was robbed of her money at one of

the first villages she stopped at; but, although the thief escaped, the village was compelled by the Ilkhani to make good the loss. Her camp was attacked several times at night, and her party was fired upon in the daytime. Parties of wandering horsemen came up and discussed openly with her escorts their intention of stripping the entire caravan, and were with difficulty dissuaded from attempting it. Her small belongings were constantly pilfered, even by the chiefs who pretended to protect her. Mrs. Bishop intended to go back to Isfahan after a short trip, but her return was cut off by an outbreak of fighting, and she found it safer to push on through the unexplored western portion of the Bakhtiari country. She followed up the upper courses of the Karun River, and located its true source, and discovered an unnamed lake. After three months of travel and camp life, she arrived safely at Burugird.

Her account gives a clear idea of the unrestrained life of a turbulent people. They are divided into many small tribes, ruled by petty khans, over whom the Ilkhani has slight control, outside of his immediate neighborhood. The khans are usually engaged in interminable vendetta warfare with each other, and care for little else. The migrations of the tribes consist of semi-annual journeys between their summer camps, in the high mountain valleys, and the mud villages lower down, where they pass the winter. Each family and tribe has certain inherited rights of pasturage, over which there is constant quarrelling. They are a pastoral people in the main, although of late years they have irrigated and cultivated some of their mountain valleys. Though Mohammedans, most of their women go unveiled, and, except in the harems of the principal khans, are little secluded. Mrs. Bishop found the women grossly ignorant, and her ceremonious visits to the harems very tedious. The women complained of the monotony of their lives and begged for love philters. The men were finely formed, active and brave, though cruel. They were faithful to their immediate chiefs, and had, unlike most Persians, some respect for their word once given. Many of them possessed great intelligence, although mixed with the crafty cunning and childish ignorance of savages. They professed to Mrs. Bishop great friendship for the English, and hopes for a British occupation of southern Persia, which would enforce order and relieve them from the misgovernment of the Shah.

After leaving the Bakhtiari country, Mrs. Bishop travelled through some of the most populous and fertile parts of Persia, to Hamadan, and thence to Urumia. She was especially interested in the American and English missionaries, whose efforts are spent mainly on the subject Christian races, as they are not allowed to work openly among the Moslems. Judging from her own experience among the Bakhtiaris, and from the success of those medical missionaries who have been sent out, she advocates strongly the further use of this means of gaining influence among the Persians.

In all parts of Persia Mrs. Bishop found, as do most travellers, among Persians of all classes who talked freely with her, the settled conviction that, at the crisis which will come at the Shah's death, northern Persia will fall into the hands of Russia, and southern Persia probably to England. This prospect is looked forward to with Oriental resignation, due partly, no doubt, to the feeling that any change from the rapacity of the tax farmers and the universal corruption of judges and all other offi-

cials would be for the better. Were there any hope for a reform of administration, there might be hope for a more vigorous patriotism and a brighter future. The Shah is intelligent and, Mrs. Bishop thinks, earnestly desirous for the welfare of his country, while the peasantry she found, in the main, industrious, honest, and frugal, not abjectly poor, considering their simple habits of life, and capable of great improvement under more favorable conditions. But between the Shah and his people is a mass of infamous corruption, unchecked by any public opinion. The best-meant plans of the Shah are rendered abortive by the crowd of venal courtiers and officials that surround him, as well as by the intrigues of Russian agents, who are anxious to let things drift from bad to worse, and by the fanatical hostility of the Mollahs, or priests, to any project in which they detect a European tendency. This last influence was shown, within a few months, by the riotous opposition to the tobacco *régie*, and was so powerful that the Shah was obliged to cancel the concession he had granted.

The latter part of the second volume describes Mrs. Bishop's journey from Urumia through the mountains of Kurdistan to Trebizond. She visits the Nestorian Patriarch, Mar Shimun, at Kochanes, and describes the present humble conditions of the Nestorian, or Syrian, branch of the Christian Church, once so widespread and powerful. Her sympathies were deeply moved by the suffering of the Nestorian and Armenian Christians from the depredations of the savage Kurds, who constantly marauded the Christian villages without restraint from the Turkish authorities. We know, from outside sources, that Mrs. Bishop exerted her influence strongly at Constantinople to persuade the Turkish Government to hold the Kurds under control, and even refrained from mentioning the theft of her own valuable journals and diaries lest she should diminish the force of her unselfish appeal.

Mrs. Bishop's book does not pretend to discuss deeply social problems and conditions, although her notes on Persian questions and character show keen observation, as well as a familiarity with the opinions held by old English residents in that country. She has more to tell of the villages on her route, the people she met, the scenes along the road, the daily happenings of her caravan, and the incidents of her camps; in short, of all the minor details which go far to give a vivid picture of the country, its people, and their life.

Historical Essays. By Edward A. Freeman, M.A., Hon. D.C.L., and LL.D., Regius Professor of Modern History in the University of Oxford. Fourth Series. Macmillan & Co.

THIS volume is made up of twenty-two essays on various subjects, archaeological, topographical, historical, and political. The most important papers are those on Carthage, Aix, Orange Autun, and the Lords of Ardres. The most remarkable is that on "Points in the History of Portugal and Brazil," full of proofs of accurate learning, though published, the author tells us, with only a few verbal changes, as it was written at Bordighera, where he had no opportunity of reference to any books whatever. The most characteristic, perhaps, is that on the Channel Tunnel, against the construction of which Prof. Freeman is inclined to protest, not on engineering or military grounds, but because it would impair the insularity which is the determining

factor and the salient feature of English history.

The volume had scarcely come into our hands when the news arrived of its author's death. He died, it seems, of smallpox. But he had for some time been an invalid and had found a Southern climate necessary in winter. The fruits of his valetudinarian sojourn in Sicily were two bulky volumes comprising the early part of a Sicilian history on the largest scale, prodigious in the minuteness of their erudition, and giving proof of an amount of labor in the way of exploration and research which would have been trying to most men in their highest health. His powers of work were indeed immense, and corresponded to the robustness of his typically Anglo-Saxon frame. We may use the phrase "Anglo-Saxon" since he is no longer here to rebuke us. The long list of his works and the range of their subjects attest his sleepless industry. Of the period of history following that treated by Gibbon and comprising the early Middle Ages he is, certainly among English writers, the king. His thoughts were turned and his life was dedicated to his special work by his Oxford training, received at the time when Newman was in the ascendant and neo-Catholicism was the creed of intellectual youth. He was the leading spirit in the Oxford Architectural Society formed for the revival of mediæval art. It is not likely that he retained later in life the beliefs or the religious aspirations of his Oxford days, but he retained his love as well as his knowledge of church architecture, his special interest in the period to which it belonged, and a feeling, to say the least, of coldness towards the Reformation, of which there are traces in one of the papers of this volume. The iconoclasm of the Reformation could not fail to be hateful to him. His knowledge of church architecture was of great service to him in treating the history of a period so largely chronicled in stone. His affection for the Middle Ages was carried to a great height when he could set a literary value on mediæval chronicles, insist that they should be read in the original, and even insinuate for them a claim to a place beside the classics. He was also a great master of Hellenic and Roman history and of the general history of political institutions; Federal government being in this department his favorite theme.

His weakness as an historian lies in his too exclusive attention to the political side of national life, and his comparative disregard of its spiritual, intellectual, social, and economical elements. He shows little feeling for any but the political life even of Athens, and little taste for literature, poetry, or any art except the church architecture of the Middle Ages. That he rather eschewed the philosophy of history, and abstained from putting forth any general theory of human progress, confining himself to facts, with their ascertained relations and sequences, was a fault on the right side, if not a merit, in an age of generalization. His learning was immense, and embraced all printed matter bearing on his period; manuscripts he did not explore. His memory was very strong, and his accuracy was almost un-failing. As a critic, he was apt to be merciless to inaccuracy, forgetting that weakness of the physical memory, such as betrays a writer into little slips, is compatible with real mastery of a subject. The inaccuracy of Mr. Froude, however, on whom he was thought to be most severe, is not only extraordinary but sinister. Prof. Freeman's historical sympathies were strongly marked, but they never caused him to swerve from truth, and they

rarely caused him to swerve from justice. He is just to William while his heart is evidently with Harold. His passionate love of his subject, by leading him to revel to excess in its details, impaired the flow of his narrative and laid him open to the charge of pedantry. His pedantry, however, was that of enthusiasm, not of display. His style, though clear, vigorous, and masculine, is too diffuse, and the voluminousness of his writings will interfere with their currency, if not with their fame.

The historian took not only an active but a vehement interest in the politics of his own day, especially in the cause of struggling nationalities, and above all in that of the Christian nationalities which were striving to escape from the domination of the Turk, against whom the shafts of his learned hatred ceaselessly flew. On these subjects he not only wrote, but spoke, with a force and effect which would have surprised those who had heard him only as a lecturer. He, however, carried the historian and archaeologist into the political field, and, could he have had his way, Europe would have been almost rearranged territorially upon the plan of the Middle Ages. He even repined at the union of Sicily with Italy, because Sicily had ethnological peculiarities and an interesting history of her own.

As a visitor to this country, Prof. Freeman fell into the error, not uncommon among English visitors, of presuming a little too much on our love of republican simplicity. There was always, however, in his address and attire something of the Englishman anterior to the Conquest. But he was a man of sterling worth, who loved justice, hated iniquity, and strove to perform all his duties in life—those which belonged to the landowner as well as those which belonged to the professor. He did an immense stroke of work, first-rate of its kind, ran a noble course, and rests in honor.

The Real Japan. By Henry Norman. Charles Scribner's Sons.

MR. HENRY NORMAN, a clever English journalist, has essayed to give us a work whose quality is midway between the German thoroughness of Rein and the superficial and often frivolous narratives of passing travellers. Taking a house in Japan, and spending some months in the capital, he set himself resolutely to study especially the Japan of the era of "Enlightened Peace," which began with the *coup d'état* in Kioto in 1868. No other writer, he thinks, has given an account of the political, economic, educational, and social conditions of this era. Indeed, so rapid are the vital political processes now proceeding, that it is impossible to take more than a snap-shot photograph of present conditions. One may indeed catch a view of the emerging image from the mask, but to describe it as finished life would be a mistake. The author clearly understands and modestly states his limitations, and then sets himself manfully to the task. Honesty of purpose and the utmost possible accuracy of statement are his only claims. In his volume, which is made up of his selected and recast letters to English journals, he discusses what will interest serious students of Japan, while yet picturing the charms which so fascinate tourists. The illustrations have been chosen with care, and most of them, especially the faces of the women, have been successfully reproduced. It is really refreshing to note the disappearance of the African cast of features so prominent in the venerable woodcuts of popular works on Japan, and to see the true Japanese

expression and lineaments accurately represented.

After the inevitable chapter on household accommodations and the environment of the domicile, the author naturally introduces us to Japanese journalism. The total circulation of the 550 newspapers and periodicals amounts in one year to 95,932,270 copies. In Tokio alone are 17 political dailies, circulating monthly 3,906,000, and 116 periodicals circulating monthly in all 495,000 copies. Very appropriately we have two pages, with portrait, devoted to Capt. F. Brinkley, R.A., the accomplished editor of the leading journal in Japan, if not in the Far East. The *Japan Mail* is the product chiefly of his brains and energy, and its influence on native and foreign opinion, as well as its filling and fertilizing power upon the makers of books on Japan, can hardly be overestimated. Like Mr. Norman's other descriptive chapters, that on the vernacular press is well salted with criticism.

In describing and analyzing Japanese justice and education, Mr. Norman proves conclusively, whether he knows it or not, that both those systems are more direct outgrowths of old Japan than foreign and borrowed or ready-made manufactures. In matters of police and law, he is surprised at the espionage yet practised, and at the patriarchal methods still in vogue; yet these are nothing more than what have been customary for a millennium or two. The application of American cataloguing to the books and photographs composing the rogues' gallery and library of biography in Tokio of 150,000 criminals, amused him. The wonderful capacity of the average Japanese to do fine art work is utilized in the prison system, and a large proportion of the cheap "art-products" of our shops are the work of native "artists" involuntarily deprived of their liberty. In giving us the real "Japan as a Military Power," he shows how deep-seated and deadly is the vice of militarism in that country, and why education is crippled and poverty is so general. With 50,000 young men under arms, mighty forts building, and great arsenals lavishly equipped, there is not much hope of Japan's national wealth increasing rapidly, or her innate barbarism being quickly reformed. This disease of militarism is not merely a matter of finance, and waste of resources, with all its attendant evil influences; it is also made the pretext of despotism, and proves that thus far Japan's parliamentary or representative system is but a caricature of the English or American pattern. The expenses of the army and navy, all of them, are put by the Government into the "fixed expenditures," which the Diet is powerless to change. Hence it is true that the people of Japan do not yet control their country. The military influence is still the true power.

It is more agreeable to turn to the chapters on arts and crafts, and here we have much fresh and luminous information pleasantly communicated. Amid much that is degrading, Mr. Norman finds genuine art-products, and shows that, even under such altered environment, the inborn spirit and potency of the natives are creating true works of beauty instinct with power to charm. Even while he praises, however, he looks with Ruskin's eye upon the Japanese landscape, which for ages has touched the imagination, ruined by the swift advance of modern industries that destroy and desolate. He turns with delight to tell us all about the Japanese women, and even to suggest how their dress may be reformed. His analysis of female costume is quite detailed. Fortunately, but few native women have adopted

the complex and unbecoming paraphernalia of western women. Even in Tokio, the most "civilized" city, not more than one in five hundred of the men wears foreign clothes, and "you perhaps see two or three Japanese ladies in a foreign dress in a week." After appropriately sandwiching two chapters on fun and an outing, Mr. Norman describes a genuine growth of real Japan. He devotes twenty-two pages to the institution of licensed prostitution—"the most remarkable attempt ever made to solve the great problem of human society." In his treatment of this subject and his references to other writers, the author reveals what is his chief limitation and great defect, viz., lack of full and accurate knowledge of the history and life of Japan before A. D. 1868. Some of his slips are amusing, as in his statement that "the New Year's Day call" was "imitated from the Americans," though the custom in Japan existed before America was discovered. It is more likely that the Dutch imitated the custom from Japan and thence introduced it to Manhattan Island, it being exotic in America beyond the area of New Netherland. Many other things which Mr. Norman thinks modern and borrowed in Japan, because resembling what is in vogue in Europe, are indigenous and ancient. In "Japan for the Japanese," the author ably discusses the complicated problem of treaty revision—a subject which dragged along for twenty years and has already wrecked three cabinets.

Mechanically, the book, with its heavy clay-loaded paper, poor ink, and cheap binding, is not attractive, but, taken altogether, the contents are of sterling interest. Certainly the Japanese should be grateful to such an intelligent and judicial critic, who is equally removed, in the attitude of his mind, from indiscriminate laudation, of which we have too much, and from the harsh censure of the soured and disappointed.

One thing seems certain from this fresh survey of the subject, and is made evident even through the author's very limitations. It is that the opening of Japan to modern civilization was even more the result of the working of forces from within than impact from without: leaven more than gunpowder wrought the result. The original movement began before Commodore Perry was even born. It originated with students and thinking men. It was a movement towards a goal long since passed, but the momentum of which is not yet spent. It is also certain from the facts of history that of all peoples who supplied the elements of expansion and transmutation, not to say the principles of rebirth, the Dutch were the leaders. When dispassionate history is set in luminous phrase, and the voices of religious hate as well as the din of jealous rivals in trade are stilled, it will be found that the little company of merchants from the Netherlands on the isle of D  shima wrought, even more than Perry's Paixhans, or Lord Elgin's diplomacy, the renaissance of the real Japan.

Charles Devens's Orations and Addresses.
Edited by Arthur Lithgow Devens. With a
Memoir by John Codman Ropes. Boston:
Little, Brown & Co.

It is high testimony to the standard of merit prevailing in a community that the subject of this memorial was hardly what would be called a distinguished man. He was a patriot of the purest feeling, a gallant soldier, a courteous gentleman, an honorable judge, a brilliant orator—withal, it seems, a man lovable and

well-beloved. Yet he would have disclaimed for himself any exceptional virtue. In his orations he loved to dwell upon the high and solemn sense of duty which led the private soldiers of the Union cause to devote to it their lives; and, as he said, the qualities of courage, fidelity, and patriotism ennoble him who exhibits them, no matter what his rank or station. And no one would have recognized with more generous pride that, in the State of which he was an honored citizen, civic virtue has been as common as military, and that those who have been ennobled by it are not to be numbered. Where magistrates as a rule are upright, an honorable judge attracts no attention, and in a community whose chief city long since counted her hundred orators, only eloquence of the highest order can bring fame.

Yet we think that they who have prepared this volume have done well. There is a tendency in the human mind to dwell upon what is exceptional and to exaggerate distinctions, and it is occasionally wholesome to bring it down to a consideration of ordinary virtue and commonplace greatness. The career of Gen. Devens, as briefly sketched by Mr. Ropes, seems to us well adapted to serve as a type of that of the conscientious servant of the public. "Few men have ever lived who were better fitted to discharge the ordinary tasks which belong to public office, whether civil or military, than was Charles Devens. He brought to their accomplishment, in the first place, an honest, courageous, and unreserved purpose to do his duty, and, in the second place, sound judgment, great tact, and good administrative ability." The importance of such characters as this to the daily life of the world cannot be overestimated, and their commemoration is a useful service.

Mr. Ropes speaks highly of Gen. Devens's success as an orator. He was a handsome man, of imposing figure and fine voice, but he owed his power less to these gifts than to his deep and evidently sincere feeling. The written record of course preserves none of these accessories, and yet there are passages in the orations upon subjects connected with the civil war that impress the reader as truly eloquent. Mr. Ropes might well have made a broader claim than that some of these addresses deserve a permanent place in the historical literature of Massachusetts. Some sentences are of a Websterian dignity, as the following from the address at the dedication of the soldiers' monument at Worcester:

"The duties which the citizens of every free government owe to it are of necessity of a higher and more solemn character than the obligations which are due from the subjects of any other State. It is emphatically their own, made by their own will, to be sustained, if sustained at all, by their own power. When menaced by disorder from within or foes from without, it is for themselves to defend it. This duty cannot be avoided or transferred; they who would be free, and they who would preserve their freedom, alike 'themselves must strike the blow.'"

Nor will men at any time read some parts of the oration on Gen. Meade without feeling the blood stir in their veins. We quote a few sentences from the account of the repulse of Pickett's charge:

"The hour for the Army of the Potomac has come. Up now, men of New England, and show yourselves in the field the same stout defenders of the Constitution and the Union that your statesmen have ever done in the forum! Up, men of the Middle States, upon whose soil this unholy attempt to strike at the keystone of the arch is made! Up, men of the West, whose fortunes have so long been cast with this Eastern army, that you may bear back

beyond the mountains the tidings of the great victory won to-day on the Atlantic slope! Up, true men of the South, few though you are in numbers, who fight in our ranks to-day!"

There are passages, too, of genuine pathos in these orations, passages so unmistakably the utterance of deep feeling that they must always remain impressive. The account of the battle of Bunker Hill in the oration at the centennial anniversary is an excellent piece of description, perhaps as good as any account we have of that momentous action. Certainly the spirit that carried our country through its two great wars was well understood by Gen. Devens, and his words will explain to posterity the sacredness of the feeling with which their fathers took up the sword. Gen. Devens was the last man in the world to indulge in military bluster, but his appeal to his troops after the disaster at Ball's Bluff shows that he was of the class of soldiers which is most terrible in war. It seems not unfitting to apply to him the lines with which he ended his eulogy of Meade:

"Mild in manner, fair in favor,
Kind in temper, fierce in fight;
Warrior nobler, gentler, braver,
Never will behold the light."

Legendary Fictions of the Irish Celts. Collected and narrated by Patrick Kennedy. Macmillan. 1891. 8vo, pp. xvi., 312.

We have had occasion from time to time to call attention to the increased interest in Celtic folk-tales as shown by the recent collections of Lady Wilde, Dr. Hyde, and our own countryman, Mr. Curtin. It is to be hoped that these works, interesting and valuable as they are, will not throw into the shade the labors of one of their predecessors, Mr. Patrick Kennedy, who has been justly termed the Irish Grimm. Mr. Kennedy was born in 1801 and died in 1873, at Dublin, where for many years he had been a bookseller, noted for the integrity of his character and his interest in Irish archaeology. In 1862 he published in the *Dublin University Magazine* an instalment of his folk-lore collections under the title "Leinster Folk Lore," reprinted later with additions as 'Legendary Fictions of the Irish Celts.' This delightful work was followed in 1870 and 1871 by 'Fire-side Stories of Ireland' and 'The Bardic Stories of Ireland'—all three so popular that they soon became out of print. It was thus a happy thought of the Macmillans to issue in an attractive form Mr. Kennedy's first work, and it is to be hoped that they may soon bring out a new edition of the two other works just mentioned.

In most of the modern scientific collections of folk-tales, the stories are taken down literally from the lips of the people. Imbriani had his Florentine tales ('La Novellaja Fiorentina,' Leghorn, 1877) stenographed. These popular versions are often mere skeletons of stories, whose only interest is a scientific one. Sometimes a collector like the Grimms appears, and then how different the result! Besides this, in some countries popular tales of a certain kind are confined to the nursery, or to the class representing the intellectual development of the nursery; in others these tales are combined with local elements, and we have such semi-popular tales as still delight the readers of Lever and Lover. Kennedy struck the happy medium, and presented his stories with accuracy and yet made them full of life and local color. The very first story in Kennedy's book, "Jack and his Comrades," illustrates what we have just said. This is the Grimm story of "The Bremen Town-Musicians," and is a wide-

ly diffused tale. In most of the versions animals alone are the actors, but in Kennedy's, Jack, the only son of a widow, lends human interest to the story, and the tale becomes a little masterpiece of comic narration. Besides "household stories," Kennedy's book contains fairy legends, ghost stories, witchcraft, Ossianic and other early legends, and legends of the Celtic saints. For popular reading it could not be improved, while it will always retain its interest and worth for students.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Beardsley, Rev. E. E. Addresses and Discourses, Historical and Religious. Cambridge: Riverside Press.
 Boyesen, Prof. H. H. Essays on German Literature. Scribners. \$1.50.
 Collingwood, H. W. The Business Hen: Breeding and Feeding Poultry for Profit. New York: Rural Publishing Co. 75 cents.
 Crawford, F. Marion. The Three Fates. Macmillan. \$1.
 Eastman, Edith V. The Ethics of Music. Boston: Dammell & Upham. 75 cents.
 Everybody's Pocket Cyclopaedia. Harpers.
 Farrer, J. A. Books Condemned to be Burnt. London: Elliot Stock; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. \$1.25.
 Hague, J. B. The Odes and Epodes of Horace. Putnam's. \$1.75.
 Irwin, R. B. History of the Nineteenth Army Corps. Putnam's. \$4.50.

Jastrow, M. A Dictionary of the Targumim, etc. Part V. Putnam's. \$2.
 Matthew, James E. Manual of Musical History. Putnam's. \$3.
 Meyer, Prof. Lothar. Outlines of Theoretical Chemistry. Longmans, Green & Co. \$2.50.
 Millet, F. D. A Capillary Crime, and Other Stories. Harpers.
 Mirkhond's Rauzat-us-safa. Part I. Vols. 1 and 2. [Oriental Translation Fund.] London: Royal Asiatic Society; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.
 Ormsbee, Agnes B. The House Comfortable. Harpers.
 Orpen, G. H. The Song of Dermot and the Earl. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
 Parsons, J. R., jr. French Schools through American Eyes. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. \$1.
 Public Statutes and Monuments of New York. Paliser, Palliser & Co. \$1.50.
 Ramsey, Samuel. The English Language and English Grammar. Putnam's. \$3.
 Robinson, Charles. The Kansas Conflict. Harpers.
 Rousset, Camille. Recollections of Marshal Macdonald, Duke of Tarentum. 2 vols. Scribners. \$10.
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 Saint-Amand, Imbert de. The Duchess of Angoulême and the Two Restorations. Scribners. \$1.25.
 Sharp, William. The Life and Letters of Joseph Severn. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. \$5.
 Shindler, Rev. R. From the Usher's Desk to the Tabernacle Pulpit: Life and Labors of Charles Haddon Spurgeon. A. C. Armstrong & Son. \$1.50.
 Silsby, Mary R. Tributes to Shakspeare. Harpers.
 Sneath, Prof. E. H. The Philosophy of Reid. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.50.

Sotheran, Charles. Horace Greeley and Other Pioneers of American Socialism. Humboldt Publishing Co.
 Soule, Richard. A Dictionary of English Synonyms. New ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$2.25.
 Souvestre, Emile. Man and Money. Cassell. 50 cents.
 Spencer, H. Social Statics. Abridged and revised, together with The Man versus the State. Appletons.
 Spiers, I. H. B. Racine's Esther. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25 cents.
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 Stephen, Sir J. F. Horre Sabbaticae. First and Second Series. Macmillan. \$1.50 each.
 Stevens, B. F. Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-83. Vols. XI and XII. London: B. F. Stevens.
 Stevens, Prof. G. B. The Pauline Theology. Scribners. \$2.
 Stevenson, R. L. Across the Plains; with Other Memories and Essays. Scribners. \$1.25.
 Stories from English History for Young Americans. Harpers.
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